The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 18, 1888.

The Week.

SECRETARY FAIRCHILD'S speech at the great meeting in Wall Street on Saturday was one of the pearls of the year's debate. It was temperate and convincing in argument. It dispersed and scattered all the charges brought against his employment of the Treasury surplus. It knocked Mr. Blaine once more "into a cocked hat." It offered a delicate poser to Senator Allison, and wound up finally with a healthy appeal to the self-reliance of the American people. Dealing with the question of "pauper labor," he brought his own former experience as a member and officer of one of our charitable organizations into service to show that we have no need to go to Europe for edification, and that, whatever be the cause of pauperism, it is quite certain that protection does not protect us from it. There was just sufficient admixture of humor in the speech to relieve it from dryness, but not enough to distract attention from the logical sequence of the argument. The Secretary certainly made a hit when he said that if he had known that he should be liable to impeachment in case Mr. Blaine were ignorant of the law, he would never have accepted the office. He made another when he said that if Senator Allison would offer any bonds to the Treasury upon which 2 per cent. interest could be realized, they would be thankfully accepted. In short, the speech was a telling one all the way through. Its statements of fact correspond with what business men already knew. The arguments drawn from the facts correspond equally with the gathering drift of public opinion. In short, the speech has the material for a first-rate campaign document, and we are convinced that it will have a marked effect on the vote of this city and State. If any people have held the notion that Mr. Fairchild is a mere routine officer and calculating machine, without ideas or the power of expressing them, such misconceptions will be pretty generally dispelled.

Mr. Blaine's speech at New Albany, in reply to Secretary Fairchild, was as disreputable and brazen as anything he has uttered in the present campaign. Mr. Fairchild had taken pains to explain why he did not begin to buy bonds at a premium before Congress had interpreted for him the act of 1881, which was supposed to authorize such purchases. He said that he doubted his authority, and that he asked Congress to affirm or construe the act as soon as the session began last December. Doubting his authority, he was compelled to deposit the surplus in the national banks meanwhile. He said also that the condition of things was so strange and anomalous that he could not be satisfied with his own action, whichever course he might take, and that he did not blame others who were not satisfied with it. Now, what does Mr. Blaine say to all this? He ignores it completely and insinuates a falsehood. He says:

> "Mr. Fairchild does not frankly and manfully confront the issue. He does not state to the people how the banks could afford to buy Government bonds when the Government itself could not afford it. If it was an advantageous proceeding for these banks to invest $60,000,000 in Government bonds, why was it not still more advantageous for the Government to do it? I press this question upon Mr. Fairchild, for he has not answered why, if the banks could make 2 to 2½ per cent. upon the purchase of United States fours, the Treasury Department could not make as much [cheers], when by doing what the banks did he could have wiped out $60,000,000 of the public debt. I press this question, not only because it is a pertinent question, but it is a question asked by one of Mr. Fairchild's most distinguished predecessors."

The answer to this rigmarole is that the banks bought their bonds and received their deposits *before* Congress relieved the Secretary's doubts as to his legal power to buy bonds at a premium for other purposes than the sinking fund. Why, asks Mr. Blaine, could not the Government afford to pay a premium if the banks could afford it? "I press this question upon Mr. Fairchild," he continues, "for he has not answered why, if the banks could make 2 to 2½ per cent. upon the purchase of United States 4s, the Treasury Department could not make as much." Mr. Fairchild had explained why, with the utmost clearness and fairness. If Mr. Blaine had the Secretary's speech before him when he replied to it, he told a deliberate lie. If he did not have the speech before him, he ought to have known what the explanation was, because it was a matter of general discussion in the newspapers and in Congress for months. Perhaps the Secretary made a mistake in his interpretation of the act of 1881. He admits that he may have erred, and he only asks that the truth should be told about it. But we shall not get that from Mr. Blaine. The Greatest Living Statesman (or Humbug) jumped at a conclusion which was contrary to the facts, as he did in regard to the English savings-bank deposits, and now he finds it necessary to support his false conclusion by fresh falsehoods.

It is evident already to every close observer of the present political campaign that the Republicans have wofully deceived themselves about their main reliance for success, namely, their ability to frighten the working classes by the argument that a reduction of Federal taxes means a reduction of wages—in other words, that American workingmen earn better wages on the average than most European workingmen solely because of our protective duties. It is retributive justice that this failure of a sophistical argument is due to the real cause of the better financial condition of American wage-earners, that is, to their greater intelligence. If the questions which are under discussion in this year's campaign were argued before constituencies of a low order of intelligence, it would be easy to convince them, by the mere statement, that because wages are higher here, and because we have a high tariff, therefore the wages depend on the tariff. To demonstrate the error of this proposition requires an argument which will attract the attention and appeal to the reason only of men who can think for themselves. The tariff reformers hold that the main reason why American workmen get better pay than their European fellow-craftsmen in most branches is because they work with more intelligence, produce better results in a given time, and so are "worth more" to their employers. The Democrats, under President Cleveland's lead, have honored American workingmen by placing faith in their ability to understand the right of this great question, and the early indications from Maine and Newark have proved that they have not overestimated the American workingman's intelligence.

The use of the "pay-envelope," which is intended to express the wish of the employer that his employee shall vote the Republican ticket, if not to threaten him with the loss of employment if he fails to do so, was undoubtedly one of the contributing causes of the Republican defeat in the Newark election. No native-born American citizen, and no foreign-born citizen who has been here long enough to imbibe ideas of independence, likes to be told how he ought to vote by anybody who stands to him in the relation of employer, or creditor, or landlord, or in any relation which carries the suggestion of power and coercion. The first thought conveyed by the pay-envelope is that the employer wants the employee to do something over and above what the contract of employment calls for. There is no other significance to the pay-envelope. If it is merely desired to distribute campaign documents for information and enlightenment of the voters, there are a hundred ways of doing this that would not offend the workingman's sense of political freedom. The post-office is a ready means of conveying such literature. Boys may be employed to hand documents to the men as they come out and go in to their work, or to leave them at their places of residence. The methods of reaching all intelligent voters without putting the imputation of servility upon them are endless. But when a man's wages, fairly earned, are handed to him in a piece of paper stamped with words signifying how he should vote, the suggestion comes to him that his vote and the money are linked together, or that it is desired that they should be. If the amount of the wages is unsatisfactory (and it generally is), the bitterness arising from this fact is apt to be heightened by receiving it in an envelope which calls for a vote in addition to the labor performed. We do not wonder that some of the more independent employees upon whom the pay-envelope has been "worked," have positively refused to

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

receive their wages in that shape. We think that the Republican managers have considerably undersized the manhood of the American workingman in this instance, and that they will be unpleasantly reminded of their mistake on election day.

An excellent feature of the New Jersey election this year is the fact that there will be no chance for the defeated party to cry fraud over the returns from Jersey City and Newark, as the Republicans have so often done in the past. The new election law compels every voter in those cities to register in person, and requires the polls to close at sunset. The Philadelphia *Press* the other day said of this law that "it will cut off from 1,500 to 2,000 of the Democratic votes that have heretofore been fraudulently cast in Hudson County, and probably a proportionate number in Newark," which returns nearly as large a poll as all Hudson County. The result of last week's election in Newark, however, would indicate that the Republicans have greatly exaggerated the amount of fraudulent voting in these quarters. It is universally conceded that no frauds were perpetrated this year, and yet the vote shows a great increase over the corresponding election of four years ago. The same candidates headed the respective tickets in the two years, and their votes compare as follows:

	1884.	1888.
Peddie, Rep.	13,511	13,851
Richmond, Dem.	11,892	14,556

It will be seen that the total vote not only shows no falling off, from the absence of fraud or any other cause, but that, on the contrary, there is an increase of 3,004, of which 2,664 was secured by the Democrats. Newark, by the way, ranked ninth among the manufacturing cities of the country, according to the last census.

The issue of the forged quotations from the English press by the Republican clubs and committees continues with unabated vigor. They are sent to us every day in bundles, by persons to whom they have been forwarded, or who have procured them at the rooms. We should be ashamed to call attention to them so often if it were not that they are the chief feature of the Republican campaign literature, showing that more reliance is placed on them than on anything else to influence the working-class voters. We have endeavored, whenever it was possible, to bring home the responsibility for their issue to individuals, so as to appeal to the individual conscience or sense of shame, but with only indifferent success. In fact, the eagerness with which respectable men, in good business and social standing, partners in large houses, and members of churches, set them afloat, is a curious phenomenon, but not more curious than the silence of the ministers and other moralists who are going to vote the Republican ticket. From not one of these latter, so far as we know, except Mr. Joseph H. Walker of Worcester, Mass., has there come one word of protest against this shocking exhibition of party decadence and immorality. The *Evening Post* sent a reporter to call the attention of Mr. John F. Plummer of the house of John F. Plummer & Co., of 345 Broadway, and the attention of Mr. W. B. Fuller of the house of H. B. Claflin & Co., President and Vice-President respectively of the Harrison and Morton Dry Goods Club, to the fact that the club was issuing forged quotations in great quantities, and to ask them what they thought about it. Both these gentlemen absolutely declined to say a word on the subject, and one was rather abusive. Shame or regret they did not seem to feel in the least, although were they to issue these forgeries in the course of their business, for the purpose of procuring the smallest sum of money or thing of value, they would both be sent to the penitentiary, amidst general approval. Now, how is it that such men as these think nothing of forgery, with the view of deceiving poor voters on what ought to be the most solemn duty of their year, while they would not for worlds use forgery to make a thousand dollars? We commend this question to the earnest attention of their pastors.

The First Ward Republican Club, No. 5 Broadway, issued on Thursday, and presumably had been issuing previously, a bundle of campaign documents, containing not only the various forged quotations from English papers, but the *Emancipator*, a weekly containing one or two illustrations, of which the "Editor and Proprietor" is "Prof. R. C. Mezzeroff." Mezzeroff is, we believe, a Russian by birth, and has been long notorious in this city as an Anarchist of the Donovan Rossa type. But he is a man of much more education than Donovan, and actually opened a school here to teach the nature and use of dynamite as a weapon of political warfare, and in fact proclaimed himself the author of a plan by which he could destroy a city like London in a very few minutes. He is, indeed, a more dangerous wretch by far than John Most. That he is now a furious Protectionist was to be expected, but that he should be the friend, and ally, and probably paid agent of the Republican party, is something which we did not expect; for is it not a party with "a majestic history," the party of Lincoln and Seward, and Chase and Sumner and Andrews? What *does* Dr. Storrs say to this, if he has already stomached the alliance with "Pat" Ford, another dynamiter, and deserter to boot?

The genesis of the famous London *Times* quotation about the use which England can make of an Irishman (or the Celt) by sending him to America to vote for Free Trade, is disclosed at last in a letter to the *Evening Post* from a gentleman in Brooklyn, who has taken the pains to trace it from the *Tribune* office to the Yale Publishing Co., and thence to the office of Pat Ford's *Irish World*. Pat told this inquirer finally that the quotation was never in the London *Times* at all, but was published fifteen or twenty years ago in a pamphlet entitled 'Why Ireland is Poor,' written by John F. Scanlon of Chicago, and published by Henry Carey Baird of Philadelphia; or rather that this was "the gist" of the pamphlet. Of all the explanations offered this is the most reasonable. Scanlon is or was a Head Centre of the Fenians. Ford would be pretty certain to be acquainted with his writings. The evolution of the quotation from a Fenian pamphlet to the editorial columns of the London *Times* is more remarkable than anything in the Darwinian system, but it is too much to expect that the circulation of the lie can now be stopped even among those who know it to be false.

Senator Allison, in his new rôle of high-tariff man, overlooks some things that he ought to be reminded of. For example, in his speech on Monday week, while arguing that the Senate bill will save to the consumer $6,000,000 in sugar, which would otherwise go to the refiners, he said, "Six millions to whom? Where will it go?" And then he proceeded to show that it will go to the consumer. But why not let it go to the wage-worker along the usual path *via* the bank account of the sugar refiner? That is the approved high-tariff method of disposing of a surplus. Besides, who knows but that the foreign sugar-growers and refiners will first crush out the domestic ones by lower prices, and, having accomplished their fell purpose, put up their prices again to an extortionate figure, to the great injury of the American consumer? We find that Mr. Allison has not got rid of all the bad stuff that he put into his great speech of March 24 and 25, 1870.

The chances of Mayor Hewitt's reëlection have been greatly improved by the action of the Republican County Convention last Thursday. Nobody can look at the ticket which it put in the field, and believe that the men who nominated it have the remotest idea that it can be elected. The nominee for Mayor is a thoroughly respectable man, who was chosen because nobody more desirable would accept the place. Many of his associates on the ticket have been put up and defeated in previous elections. Some of them have been "traded off" at the polls by their closest friends, and will be so treated this year if opportunity can be found. Diligent search has been made during the past week for a rich and respectable candidate who would pay a handsome "assessment," give a color of sincerity to the Republican professions of a belief that there is a chance for success, and thus furnish a basis for a profitable "deal" at the polls. Former unhappy experience had, however, made all the rich members of the party so shy that none of them could be found who was willing to be made a victim. It became necessary, therefore, to fall back upon respectability alone, and make the best of the situation. Thousands of Republican voters will now give their support directly to Mr. Hewitt as the only way of defeating the Tammany nominee. The Boys will "deal" with

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Tammany for all the votes which they can transfer in a body, but this number is not large. In these "deals" the national Democratic ticket may suffer somewhat, but we do not apprehend serious harm in that direction.

Dr. W. E. Boggs has been recently elected, by a unanimous vote of the Board of Trustees, Chancellor of the University of Georgia. Dr. Boggs, it will be remembered, was one of the professors at the Columbia (S. C.) Theological Seminary who warmly espoused the cause of Dr. Woodrow. His election is, therefore, a sign of the growth of a liberal spirit in the "orthodox" South. The discussion among the members of the Board concerning the kind of man to be chosen furnishes most curious evidence of the stride forward which Georgia has taken. The advocates of a preacher for the post doubtless represented the views of the majority. Gov. Gordon and ex-Congressman Hammond, who "felt" that the University needed "a man of piety and power at its head, who would commit it by example and precept to religious thought and sentiment," were unquestionably the spokesmen of the vast body of its friends and patrons. He who opposed this "feeling" is himself a preacher, and perhaps the most distinguished one in the State—Bishop Beckwith of the Episcopal Church. The Bishop insisted that the first duty of the Board should be to find a man strong enough to combat the scientific doubts thrown over religion, and that though he was not opposed to the selection of a clergyman, it would be next to impossible to find one possessing sufficient scientific attainments to hold his own with Spencer, Darwin, Huxley and their followers, who were reaching the young through popular articles in our magazines and newspapers. He declared that the clergy do not realize the importance of this matter. "They preach," said the Bishop, "of Christian duty, while their hearers are doubting the very divinity of Christ. It does not suffice for a clergyman to preach the simple gospel from his pulpit while the pews cry out for argument that will justify them in holding to their faith, and save them from surrendering that which they hope and believe to be true." He advocated the selection of a trained man of science, who could answer the doubts of the young, and lead them to reject so much of the alleged science of the day as is false, and to hold to that which is true.

The Bishop closed with this sentence, which we dare say would startle many boards of trustees in this country: "The old-fashioned Gospel of Christ and Him crucified has satisfied the world for centuries, but a new era is upon us. Tremendous progress has been made in thought and discovery. New theories are proposed and decided, and we stand on the brink of the most tremendous intellectual revolution this world has witnessed since Martin Luther nailed his papers to the door of the church. Georgia should appreciate this, and her university should stand as a beacon-light amid the doubts that are raised." This was not questioned, but the other members of the board suggested that doubts would arise, if the Chancellor presented scientific arguments and attempted to refute them; that these doubts could best be answered in the laboratory and class-room; that it was not necessary for the head of the university to enter upon scientific discussion of technical points of religious faith, but to present an example of piety, coupled with power and liberality. The selection of Dr. Boggs followed, as his general and special equipment commended him to both parties in this discussion. The Bishop seconded the nomination.

Mr. Wemyss Reid, William E. Forster's biographer, has answered Mr. Gladstone in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century* touching the cause of Mr. Forster's withdrawal from the Cabinet. Mr. Gladstone said, in substance, that the cause was a mystery, seeing that the Cabinet had stood by Mr. Forster to the end, and that, as regards the release of Parnell, Parnell gave the pledge to discourage outrage and intimidation which was what Mr. Forster agreed should be the condition of his release. Mr. Reid now shows pretty clearly that what Forster demanded was a public pledge, and that the Cabinet contented itself with a private one, which Mr. Forster said would do no good. But this does not really improve Mr. Forster's position. The act under which Parnell was imprisoned gave the Government power to imprison him only in case he was "reasonably suspected" of having done and of intending to do certain things. Both Forster and Gladstone agreed that where this "reasonable suspicion" ceased to exist, a prisoner under the act should be released; that he could not properly be confined merely as an aid in carrying out a certain line of policy, or in order to strike terror into his friends and supporters; that he must stand or fall by the belief of the Government as to what his state of mind was. Now, if Parnell's private pledge removed this "reasonable suspicion," Mr. Forster had no warrant of law for keeping Parnell in jail. To confine him in order to compel him to give a public pledge was to confine him simply in order to help the Government in pacifying the country—something which both Forster and Gladstone agreed it had no right to do. Mr. Reid's article clears up some points in dispute, but not the main one. It leaves Mr. Chamberlain just where it found him.

The conversion by Dr. Morell Mackenzie of his record of the sufferings of his patient, the Emperor Frederick, into merchandise of the lowest kind, and the sale of it to a disreputable sensational Sunday newspaper in this city for a good round sum, strikes us as one of the shabbiest and least professional acts ever committed by a member of a noble calling. A quarrel of doctors over a dead body is always a rather repulsive thing, doubly repulsive when the body is that of a man at whose bedside the whole civilized world watched with sorrow and respect. We can readily conceive, however, that Dr. Mackenzie may have found it necessary to lay before the public a full account of the sickening details of the progress of the dreadful and fatal disease, owing to the assaults made on his professional reputation. We are treated to so many of these clinical horrors, nowadays, whenever a distinguished man dies, that doctors are naturally more and more ready to supply them on small provocation. But surely the vindication ought to have been made in the quietest and most professional way, and addressed as far as possible, in form as well as in fact, to a professional audience only. Does any layman or laywoman whose literary tastes are not thoroughly morbid or depraved care to follow in minute detail the history of a fatal cancer in the throat? But what are we to say of a doctor who makes a sort of popular novel out of the story of his patient's horrible sufferings, and sells it then for a large sum to one of the most enterprising purveyors of nastiness in the world? The arrangement has miscarried through somebody's dishonesty; but it is very rare indeed for a thief to render indirectly such good service to the cause of decency as this one has done.

The visit of the German Emperor to Italy, which he is now making, has been the subject for some months of rather angry diplomatic debates. The question was whether the Emperor was to call first on the King or on the Pope, for if he called first on the King he recognized him as the greatest man in Rome and Rome as the capital of Italy, whereas if he called first on the Pope he recognized the Pope as the greatest man in Rome, and Rome as the capital of the Papacy. For a good while the Papal diplomats tried to extract from the Emperor some sort of caveat or memorandum that his visit to the King was not to be considered as a personal recognition of the King's supremacy in Rome; but he refused to give anything of the kind, and he has solved the problem by going first to see the King, while the Pope was obliged to submit to a second visit.

The German Catholics are in the habit of holding a convention every year at Freiburg, and the Prussian Bishops a conference at Fulda. The assemblies usually confine themselves to strictly religious topics of discussion, but this year they have gone out of their way to denounce the recent Italian legislation, making it penal to agitate for any change in the territorial constitution of the existing kingdom of Italy, or to insist on the necessity for the Pope of "a city to himself," and to protest against the German alliance with Italy. The Pope has congratulated the Freiburg Convention on the stand it has taken, and it is now rumored that under Roman inspiration similar conventions are to be held in all the countries of Europe, to begin a general pressure on the German Government in favor of some modification of the Pope's position; Germany being assumed to be the only country that Italy will heed.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

GOVERNMENT DEPOSITS IN NATIONAL BANKS.

No part of this campaign of mendacity and vulgarity has been more disreputable than the charge that the Administration is censurable for "lending the public money to the banks." This charge has been repeated and reiterated till probably some ignorant people begin to think that there may be something in it. Gen. Harrison himself has had something to say about it in his speeches, but we are inclined to think that, as usual, he sinned through ignorance and unfamiliarity with the subject. We do not think he would make a false statement. We do not think that any such excuse can be made for Mr. Blaine, because it is his habit to make all kinds of reckless statements in his speeches, taking the risk of being found out and exposed. His statement at Detroit that if any Republican Secretary of the Treasury had deposited as much money in national-bank depositories as Mr. Fairchild has deposited (about $60,000,000), the Democrats would have impeached him if they had been in power, was one of these reckless statements amounting to downright falsehood. Mr. Blaine prefaced this statement by saying that he had had experience in public affairs which entitled him to speak with authority. We showed in reply that, during seven months in the year of 1879, Secretary Sherman had on deposit in national-bank depositories various sums ranging from $97,000,000 to $276,000,000, and we remarked that this matter was of no importance except as illustrating Mr. Blaine's recklessness on the stump.

Now comes Mr. Thomas M. Nichol, who evidently thinks that he has had experience in the affairs of Government sufficient to enable him to take part in public instruction. His explanation of the large deposits in national-bank depositories by Secretary Sherman is in this wise:

> "Mr. Sherman had no large surplus to use at his discretion. He was engaged under the law in refunding the high interest-bearing bonds which then represented the public debt. As fast as he could sell 4 or 4½ per cent. bonds, he was directed by law to redeem the outstanding 6 per cents. But he was not allowed to call any bonds for redemption till he had money on hand with which to redeem them from the sale of those bearing the lower rate of interest; and when he made a call, the law required him to give three months' notice to the owners of the bonds called, which were designated by their numbers.
>
> "This direction of the law obliged the money provided to pay for each batch of bonds called to remain idle during these three months. As the new bonds were sold through the banks, it was simply a natural consequence that the money obtained from them should remain in these banks for some period of time—that is, until the Government called for it. This was a very different matter from that of turning money in the Treasury over to the banks for their use and benefit."

This means that the money deposited in the national-bank depositories was exactly the amount of the called bonds and interest. Evidently Mr. Nichol did not have the Treasury reports before him when he made this statement. If he had had them, he would have seen that the amount of called bonds and interest was reported as a liability every month, and that the amount of money deposited in the banks was a vastly greater sum. The figures are as follows:

	Deposits held by Nat'l Bank Depositories.	Called bonds and interest.	Excess of deposits.
Feb. 1, 1879	$166,357,141	$6,928,703	$159,428,438
March 1, "	249,586,805	6,699,291	242,887,514
April 1, "	226,681,802	7,997,936	218,683,866
May 1, "	260,760,430	68,632,751	192,127,679
June 1, "	276,442,471	57,377,637	219,064,834
July 1, "	201,402,860	39,082,398	162,320,462
Aug. 1, "	97,078,837	81,408,785	15,670,052

Now, you may take these figures any way you please. You may reckon the deposits three months before or three months after the corresponding amounts of called bonds, and you will not find a month until the last when the excess of deposits was not vastly greater than the largest sum deposited by Secretary Fairchild. The truth is—and it was a matter of adverse comment at the time, although the criticism was, in our opinion, unfounded—that Secretary Sherman had made money easy by large deposits in the banks, in order to float the 4 per cent. loan. If his object was to make money easy in order to carry to a successful issue the funding of the national debt at a lower rate of interest, he was justified in doing so. He was justified, even if after events showed that the step was unnecessary. As in the present case, there was an abnormal situation in Treasury affairs, and the Secretary used his best judgment in meeting it.

In the present case, everybody knows what would have been the consequence of locking up the Treasury receipts in the Treasury vaults. It would have led with a rush to a commercial crisis. Everybody saw this at the time, and everybody, Republicans as well as Democrats, accordingly urged the Secretary to deposit the incoming surplus in national-bank depositories. Most people feared that the banks would not take it on the conditions as to security that the law required; and, in fact, the banks did refuse to take more than the $57,000,000 or $60,000,000 which constituted the bugbear of Mr. Blaine's speech. To call this deposit "loaning the money to the banks" is a lie by indirection. All Secretaries of the Treasury since the close of the war have "loaned money to the banks" in this sense, because all have kept more or less money on deposit with them. The deposit has none of the characteristics of a loan, and to call it such is a deliberate attempt to deceive by the misuse of words.

THE WORLD'S WHEAT HARVEST.

In connection with the International Grain Market which is annually held at Vienna, it has become the custom to arrange an estimate of the world's crops for the current year. Special attention has been given to wheat, and the results on the whole have been so nearly correct that they are looked for now with much interest. Their importance this year is even greater than usual. The changes in the price of wheat have been so rapid, and the future is as yet so uncertain, that every impartial and competent estimate of the crop is of decided value.

It is true that the statisticians have been this year subject to exceptional difficulties. The season was so late that there was an opportunity for change of conditions after the estimate was published. In France and in England there was an improvement, in most other countries a falling off. Yet with all these unavoidable sources of error, the Vienna figures are worth studying in detail.

The general results for 1887 and 1888, as given in the general summary, are shown in the following table. The figures are in millions of hectolitres, one hectolitre being equal to two and five-sixths measured bushels:

IMPORTING COUNTRIES.

	Production.		Demands for import.	
	1888.	1887.	1888.	1887.
Great Britain	20	28	58	45
France	90	111	27	7
Germany	39	42	9	6
Switzerland	0.6	0.8	4.2	4
Italy	37	42	9	4
Spain and Portugal	47	47	5	5
Belgium and Holland	7.5	8.5	6	5
Greece	1.5	1.5	1	1
Denmark	1	1	1	1
Sweden and Norway	1	1	1	1.5
Other importing countries (not included in estimate for 1887)	2	?	6	?
	246.6	282.8	127.2	79.5

EXPORTING COUNTRIES.

	Production.		Supplies for export.	
	1888.	1887.	1888.	1887.
Austria	53	56	5.8	7
Russia	90	82	32	24
Servia and Rumania	13	13	6	6
Turkey and Bulgaria	11	12	3	4
United States and Canada	152	162	36	46
India	65	75	13	13
Australia and Chili	11	10	7	6
Egypt	5	5	1.5	1.5
	400	415	104.3	107.5

Putting these two sets of figures together, we have a total of 646.6 million hectolitres in 1888, against 697.8 million in 1887; that is to say, 1,832 million measured bushels in 1888, against 1,977 in 1887—a large but by no means unprecedented variation. It is hardly necessary to warn our readers against placing too implicit reliance on these figures. The estimate for a country like India, or even like Spain, can be little more than a guess. The introduction of a few additional importing countries outside of Europe into the table for 1888 also constitutes a disturbing element.

On the other hand, the estimate of exports and imports is far more trustworthy in itself, and one in which the members of the International Congress were more directly interested. In this respect the season of 1888, taken by itself, shows a deficit of 22.9 million hectolitres against a surplus of 28 million in 1887. How serious this is to be will depend partly upon the amount of wheat carried over from last year, and partly upon the extent to which other food products can be substituted for wheat.

The deficit is due chiefly to bad harvests in the importing countries. England, France, and Italy all have suffered severely; though the loss in the two former is probably not so great as was at one time supposed. The wheat acreage in Great Britain was somewhat larger than in the years immediately preceding, but the yield was unsatisfactory. Other crops have done reasonably well. In France, which, next to the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

United States, is the greatest wheat-producing country in the world, the yield was estimated at only 80 per cent. of the ordinary harvest; and other crops were below the average. Last year, with a satisfactory wheat crop, France imported a little less than 20,000,000 bushels. This year it was at one time expected to need 75,000,000 to satisfy its demands. In Italy, matters seem even worse. The harvest will probably be not more than 85 per cent. of that of last year, and perhaps little more than three-quarters of that of a good average year. The demands for importation are estimated at about 25,000,000 bushels, against 11,000,000 bushels in 1887. Germany shows a slight reduction from last year, but on the whole an advance above the mean of a dozen years preceding; and the same may be said with less reserve of Austria. In both of these countries the results in 1887 were so good that considerable diminution was possible without producing anything like real distress. Both in Hungary and Austria, wheat shows a yield of nearly 10 per cent. above the average of past years per acre under cultivation. It is to be noted, however, that in both of these countries other grains have been far from successful.

Russia has done well, distinctly better than last year, some of the best provinces showing a yield as high as 120 per cent. of the average. Other grains besides wheat have also given large crops. It is estimated that Russia will be able to export over 90,000,000 bushels instead of 68,000,000, as was the case last year. The regions of the lower Danube, which are relied upon for a considerable wheat export, have repeated their good results of last year. In fact, the details would indicate that they had done decidedly better; but the general estimate gives the same aggregate figure of wheat production and probable export as in the year preceding. The final result of all this is, as has been seen, a most distinct deficit in the European wheat crops, without a corresponding increase in other parts of the world. In India the harvest is pronounced, in a vague way, good; but the detailed figures of production, such as they are, hardly warrant this view of the matter. It is doubtful whether India can export more wheat than last year, or as much as has been the case in several years previous. The total amount shipped by South America, Africa, or even Australia, is too small to have any decisive effect; and the wheat crop of the United States is certainly in no condition to make good the deficit in Europe.

A VANISHED ILLUSION.

JUST two years and a half ago a great many sensible people thought the appearance of Mr. Powderly and his Knights of Labor in the American political arena meant the application of a new force to human affairs. The religious weeklies and the monthly reviews in the early part of 1886 had numerous articles, frequently from clergymen, warning all those of us who did not work with our hands, that we were on the edge of a great social revolution, which would put "labor on top," and in some unexplained manner make life very hard, or at all events very different, for the quill-drivers and the bookmen and the people who worked with their brains. We were favored, in fact, with a few not obscure intimations that the days when Delmonico's, and the opera, and landaus, and summer trips to Europe, and imported clothes were reserved for people who had money enough to pay for them, were passing away before our eyes, and that we were now to witness the strange but splendid spectacle of the poor, and ignorant, and lazy monopolizing the luxuries of the earth. Politics, too, were to be taken out of the hands of the incompetents who now manage them, and given in charge to laboring men, who, as Grand Master Workmen, Worthy Foremen, Venerable Sages, and Walking Delegates, were to show us, after our weary waiting of 100,000 years or thereabouts, how the world ought to be governed. Rings, corners, monopolies, self-seeking, and corruption were to vanish from our affairs. Everybody was to have plenty of money, and justice was at last to reign.

Immediately after the Southwestern strikes Powderly went before the Congressional Committee, and was there gravely asked by Mr. Barnes to supply the Committee with his (Powderly's) opinion as to what could be done under the existing law to end "labor troubles," and also "what might be done and ought to be done by amendments to the Constitution." Powderly, instead of modestly shrinking from a job which would have appalled the Convention of 1787, answered cheerfully, "I shall do so, and thank you for the suggestion."

A kind of panic at this moment, however, seems to have seized the Committee. They feared that Powderly, in providing for the settlement of the labor question through immediate legislation, might refuse to take into account the limitations placed on Congressional action by the Constitution, and might insist on converting the legislative branch into an omnipotent parliament. Consequently Mr. Buchanan, just in the nick of time, before Powderly had begun to think the matter over, said: "Will you also, in considering the question, take into view the complex nature of this Government, and the divided responsibility between Federal and State legislation, so as to make your suggestions such as the national Legislature can duly act on?" Powderly, with great moderation, we admit, answered, "I will do so." We believe he has never produced these suggestions, but we have no doubt that, for a few weeks at least, a good many people waited for them with some anxiety.

About the same time, Prof. Ely of the Johns Hopkins University issued through the Baltimore *American* a solemn appeal to the Knights of Labor to reform the civil service. In doing so he was compelled to admit that the civil-service reformers were a sorry lot, who wore swallow-tail coats and white neckties, and were unworthy to "lead the masses." He knew the Knights could not be expected to keep company with such duffers, but they "could at least enter into their labors and appropriate what they had done." The good Ely evidently believed that if he could get the ear of the Knights, he could have all the good measures we need passed at once, and throw the civil-service reformers, with their swallow-tails, and the politicians, with their "petty personalities," overboard. Ely's wrestlings with the Knights were, indeed, we think on the whole, the funniest incident in the tragi-comedy which occupied public attention during the first half of 1886. The figures which Powderly gave out, too, touching the strength of his order—between 2,000,000 and 3,000,000—shed a sort of lurid light on the scene; and when we learned that the Executive Board had purchased a $100,000 "mansion" as a headquarters in Philadelphia, and furnished it in a manner fit for Jay Gould, and that Powderly himself had $5,000 salary, and no end of secretaries, there came a moment when both Capital and Brains were near throwing up the sponge, and hiding their diminished heads in the nearest ash-barrel.

The changes which have since occurred are most significant and instructive, and we commend them to the attention of all social philosophers, of both sexes, who think that human society can be revolutionized by taking thought, or enrolling one's self in a club, or by anything except a change in human character. The treasury of the Knights is reported empty. The members of the Order number, according to the most sanguine estimate, 200,000. One Secretary, Litchman, has resigned, in order to be hired by the "politicians" as a campaign orator. Another, Barry, has retired also, firing Parthian arrows at Powderly, who denounces them both as dishonest, and says they were Knights "for revenue only." Powderly himself is said to be more sensible than was generally supposed, and to have been studying law in order to be ready to earn his living at the bar when the $5,000 salary ceases. Ely is silent, though, doubtless, still hopeful. In District Assembly No. 49 there has been a hard struggle for possession of Pythagoras Hall between the well-known Quinn and the well-known Fitzgerald, both distinguished Walking Delegates, who have frequently offered to solve the labor problem and regenerate society in this city. Quinn got possession of the hall, and he and his adherents were garrisoning it in a peaceful manner, when Fitzgerald stormed it by a night attack. A brief struggle in the dark, with spittoons, chairs, and empty bottles, ended in the capture of the place and the expulsion of the defenders, almost in a state of nudity, into the streets. A more shameful conflict has never taken place between capitalists and brain-workers in our time, and to some it will doubtless make the future of man seem very dark. The civil-service reformers still wear their swallow-tails and white cravats; and society goes on in the old way, improving solely through toil and industry, the spread of knowledge, the progress of science and invention, and the strenuous exertions of the great mass of men to abolish their own poverty.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

FRENCH CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT.

THE French Chambers met on Monday, and, as was expected, M. Floquet at once proposed a revision of the Constitution. The scheme which he has submitted is not as radical as was expected or feared by the Opportunists. It was supposed that it would include the abolition of the Senate, whereas it simply makes the Senatorial term of office three years instead of nine, and that of the Deputies three years instead of four. But it takes away from the Senate the power of absolute rejection of any bill originating in the Lower Chamber, which the Senate now possesses in common with all other Upper Houses, and substitutes therefor a "suspensive veto," which expires in two years. In other words, the Senate would, after this change, have simply the power of imposing on the Chamber further consideration of any measure originating in that body. Its power over financial measures, which is now the same as that of our Senate, M. Floquet proposes to assimilate to that of our Board of Aldermen—that is, to reduce it simply to criticism or remonstrance which would make necessary a second debate in the Chamber. The Senate would also, under M. Floquet's plan, lose the power it now possesses conjointly with the President of dissolving the Lower Chamber. This right would hereafter be reserved to the President exclusively.

None of these things are, however, so important as the provision of a fixed term for the Ministers, who are to be removable during this period, as we understood the despatches, only by a solemn vote of the Chamber that they have lost the confidence of the country, and not, as now, by mere defeat on a bill or resolution. This is the first distinct abandonment of the English for the American constitutional system. The experiment of perpetuating under the Republic the old English custom, adopted by the constitutional monarchy in France, but discarded by the Second Empire, of making the Cabinet responsible to the Chamber, and removable by defeat on any bill or resolution, has proved a total and lamentable failure, and has done more than anything else to discredit the Republic. The result has been that since 1875 ministries have not lasted, on the average, over ten months. As each change, too, involves the introduction of new men into high office, as well as the depreciation of those who have already held it, the quality of French statesmen has gone on deteriorating in an almost alarming way. Most of the ministers nowadays are men who have never been heard of till they take office, and are never heard of again after they leave it, and they usually retire loaded with contempt and followed by jeers.

The causes of this state of things are, as usual, numerous, and showed themselves very soon after the adoption of the Constitution. We do not feel competent to pass on the comparative or positive efficacy of any of them, but the chief, as specified by the best observers, are: (1.) The French passion for equality, or, as detractors call it, French envy. As soon as a man shows signs of becoming eminent in parliamentary life, all parties unite in pulling him down. Gambetta was, it is said, ruined by this course, and after him, Ferry. In politics, the French take no national pride in great men. (2.) The absence among the French of the habit of party government, perhaps never fully formed under the Monarchy, and totally destroyed under the Empire. Party ties being feeble in the Chamber, and there being no commanding leaders, the Republicans had no cohesion, and easily broke into small "groups," on whom no Minister could count for consistent and steady support, and who competed with each other for supremacy over him by means of threats and exactions. (3.) Offices or "spoils" —according to some, the most disintegrating agency of all. Every member from the country districts comes up now to Paris, eager to show his constituents how influential he is with the Ministry; and the only way he can show it is by getting places for his henchmen or votes of money for his "deestrict." The Government offices, great and small, have been multiplied enormously in order to satisfy him, but he cannot be satisfied. No Minister has one-hundredth part enough places at his command to meet the demands on him, and every member whom he disappoints becomes his enemy.

The confusion worked in this way—the plain inability of each Ministry to form a parliamentary majority or govern through it—has, after thirteen years' trial, greatly disgusted and, what is worse in France, humiliated the country. For the present régime does not supply the English remedy for ministerial shortcomings—the putting of the Opposition into power. There is in France no Opposition able to take office and hold it against all comers. Even if there were, however, it is doubtful whether the French voters have yet acquired enough political skill to avail themselves of it. The French mind, when in political trouble, turns, under the influence of the strongest tradition of French history, not to agitation, or persuasion, but to the discovery of some kind of dictator. It is this which has now given them Boulanger, and which keeps him afloat, in spite of disadvantages of all kinds which make his eminence so incomprehensible to foreigners. So that when M. Floquet proposes to adopt the American plan of giving the Ministers a certain degree of permanence, he is really fighting "Boulangism" as much as anything else—that is, trying to revive the popular confidence in parliamentary institutions.

Whether he will succeed is of course still doubtful. The Constitution has been twice revised already, in 1884 and 1885, when the life senatorships were abolished, and when departmental representation on a general ticket (*scrutin de liste*) was substituted for district representation (*scrutin d'arrondissement*). It was framed in 1875, by an Assembly mainly composed of Monarchists, and nobody denies that it was meant to be the foundation of a Monarchical restoration. The wonder is that, with this taint on its origin, it has lasted substantially unchanged so long. The demand for its revision will probably, after each revision, be as strong as ever in some quarters, which would be no great harm if the process of revision were as difficult there as it is here. Even children after a while stop crying for what they find it hard to get; and if the French Constitution could only be changed by a two-thirds vote on a plébiscite, or the vote of two-thirds of the Departments through the Councils-General, it is possible the electors would settle down into quieter political ways.

One bit of revision is now confessedly a failure—the return to the *scrutin de liste*. This was Gambetta's plan of forming great parties in the Chamber, and it has been as fertile in the production of cantankerous "groups" as the *scrutin d'arrondissement* ever was.

THE LAW OF THE RUNDSCHAU'S CASE.

THE Berlin *Nation*, in its issue of September 29, publishes an article entitled "The Indictment of the Diary of Emperor Frederick," in which Dr. Munckel, a high authority on criminal law, criticises severely the recent letter of Prince Bismarck to the Emperor. Although at the time the article was written the matter had not yet been formally referred to the public prosecutor, the writer had no doubt that a prosecution would be ordered by the Minister of Justice. But what crime will be charged? Prince Bismarck says that if the Diary is authentic, its publication constitutes treason beyond a doubt. If it is not authentic, it is not so clear, according to him, that there is a case of treason; but, under various provisions quoted by him, and perhaps under other provisions, the discovery of which is left to the Public Prosecutor, the publisher might be convicted of a misdemeanor. Now, the Public Prosecutor always tries to secure a conviction of as grave a crime as the circumstances will possibly allow. He will, therefore, elect to prosecute for treason; but in order to do this successfully, he must prove that the document is authentic.

Assuming that he succeeds in proving the authenticity, the question remains whether the publications constitute treason under Section 92 of the Penal Code. This section is directed against any one who publishes state secrets, or such other facts as he knows the interest of the Empire, or one of the Federal States, requires to be kept secret from foreign States. This section can only be invoked if the facts published are true; for how can anything that is not true be kept secret? Prince Bismarck, however, says positively that all facts mentioned in the Diary, the publication of which might be considered as being opposed to the interest of the Empire, are untrue, *e. g.*, the alleged plan of Emperor Frederick to compel, by force if necessary, the South German allies to give their assent to the proclamation of the Empire; the opinion expressed on the character of the Kings

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of Bavaria and Würtemberg; the views of the Prussian Government on papal infallibility. In fact, his doubts as to the authenticity of the Diary are based on the utter falsity of these statements. The authenticity of the Diary would not make these untruths true. The only explanation would be that the Prince was mistaken, unless we assume that Prince Bismarck does not speak the truth, and, of course, the latter position cannot be taken by any public prosecutor. Prince Bismarck bases his letter on the assumption that only two aspects of the case are possible—either the Diary is authentic, or it is spurious. He forgets that even an authentic document may contain misstatements. Perhaps, however, as Dr. Munckel ironically observes, he had this possibility before his mind when he wrote the letter, and intended that, if the authenticity was shown, the German people should be the judges as to who was correct in his statement of the facts, the Emperor or the Chancellor.

If the facts are not true, this paragraph of Section 92 does not apply. The accused will, of course, invoke on this point the testimony of the Chancellor, and with all the more force because, if ever the question came up, whether or not the interest of the Empire was jeoparded by the publication of the Diary, assuming the fact to be true, the testimony of the Chancellor would certainly be conclusive. For Prince Bismarck is the man, so his friends assert, who made the Empire; the man whose diagnosis of the infantile diseases of the newly founded State (diseases which can be cured only through the intervention of the Public Prosecutor) is infallible. That such a man has solemnly asserted that the facts narrated in the Diary never took place, and that he did so in the same document in which he says that the publication is dangerous for the state, is most fortunate for the accused.

Perhaps, if the Diary is spurious, the second paragraph of Section 92 will be invoked. It is directed against those who falsify, destroy, or suppress documents or papers by which rights of the Empire or of a Federal State are evidenced, to the injury of such Empire or State. In the first place, even if the Diary were spurious, the publication would not fall under this section unless the additional point were proved that the facts narrated in it were false. But, furthermore, this provision is not applicable, because it assumes that there have been genuine documents which have been falsified or suppressed. It has never been alleged that the editor of the *Rundschau* has had such genuine documents in his hands and that he has falsified or suppressed them. On the contrary, it is rather the non-suppression which is complained of.

The only other penal provisions which have to be considered are those under which the publications would constitute an offence of comparatively little importance. In order to invoke them, the Diary must of course be proved to be spurious. If it were otherwise, the Emperor Frederick would have to be considered as an accomplice. At the end of his letter, Prince Bismarck clearly admits the correctness of this view, for he takes the position that the publication constitutes a defamation of the character of the deceased Emperor. But it is doubtful whether a Prussian court, if it merely interprets the law and leaves politics out of view, can hold that the publication of the Diary constitutes a defamation of character, on the ground that it contains a wilfully untrue charge against the Prince of a fact which, if true, would constitute moral turpitude or expose him to public contempt. Moreover, a prosecution on this ground can only be had on the complaint of an immediate relative, and it is very doubtful whether, in this case, such complaint would be made.

The Diary certainly does not contain any defamation of living persons. The Chancellor, who is very sensitive on this point, does not even pretend that it does. It is true that, after reading it, one feels angry towards certain persons; but it is not an indictable offence to excite such a feeling. Even if the document is spurious, the Public Prosecutor will therefore have to act ex-officio. He may, perhaps, invoke two other sections—in the first place, Section 131, which punishes him who knowingly asserts non-existent facts in order to excite contempt for existing institutions. The Diary says that the Constitution, or part of it, is a "chaos." This word is not flattering, but it cannot be said to excite contempt. On the contrary, it is rather flattering for the Chancellor, who has reigned for eighteen years with this chaotic Constitution. In the second place, Section 263 might be invoked. It is directed against those who attempt to derive profit from documents which they know to be spurious. In addition to the difficulty of proving the spurious character of the Diary, there would be here the difficulty of proving that the publisher had actual knowledge of its spurious character. Where even the Chancellor has only a suspicion, it would be almost impertinent to say that another can have actual knowledge.

The legal argument contained in the article of Dr. Munckel is cogent and conclusive; but unfortunately the Arnim litigation and other political prosecutions have shown that it is doubtful, to say the least, whether German courts, when appealed to to decide, not on legal but on political grounds, would make their own the famous answer of the Parlement of Paris to a similar request—"This court renders judgment, not service."

THE EMPEROR FREDERICK'S DIARY IN FRANCE.

PARIS, October 4, 1888.

THE emotion created by the publication in the *Deutsche Rundschau* of fragments of the Diary of the late Emperor Frederick has been as considerable in France as it has been in Germany. The whole history of the war of 1870-71 has been brought back to our memory, and people have been able to see, so to speak, from the outside what they had only seen from the inside. Important as the Diary may be in an historical sense (and, though it may have suffered some alterations in the *Rundschau*, it will certainly remain one of the most curious documents of our time), it cannot be denied that its publication has been an imprudence and an indiscretion. We are still left in ignorance of the circumstances of this publication. Many versions have been given, and at the present moment it is needless to discuss them. We can only say that if it was in accordance with a wish expressed by the late Emperor he must have been attacked, like other sovereigns, princes, and princesses of our time, by an inordinate love of publicity. There has never been a time when persons who seemed born to live behind the clouds of an Olympus, have come so much before the public, and volunteered to make us cognizant of their inmost thoughts. It may be that the sort of seclusion in which they live inclines them to analyze their own thoughts more than common mortals do. I believe, however, that this disposition is most dangerous, and that those who indulge in it ought at least to take as much precaution as Prince Talleyrand, whose memoirs are not yet published, and will not be for a long time.

If the publication of the Diary was not made by the Emperor's orders, it is an act of unjustifiable indiscretion and cannot be judged too severely. I am not much surprised that the Chancellor of Germany has ordered the Public Prosecutor to begin a criminal action against the *Rundschau* and the authors of the publication of the Diary; but I must confess I have been somewhat surprised at the terms of his report to the Emperor, and at the efforts which he makes to prove that the Diary "in its present form" is not genuine, and at the long discussion into which he enters in order to show the inaccuracies of the Diary. It is in the very nature of a diary to be sometimes inaccurate and always incomplete: a diary gives only fragmentary sensations and emotions, and Prince Bismarck showed too much irritation when he wrote that in 1870 he had not the King's permission to talk with the Crown Prince on esoteric questions of the policy of Prussia, "since his Majesty, on the one hand, dreaded the indiscreet revelations which might thus be made to the English Court, which was full of French sympathies, and, on the other, was apprehensive lest detriment might thus accrue to our relations with our German allies by reason of the far-reaching aims and violent means which were recommended to his Royal Highness by political counsellors of doubtful ability."

It is quite true that Prince Bismarck was in 1870 the responsible adviser of the Crown, while the Crown Prince was irresponsible. Prince Frederick was an ardent lover of German unity. Though he was a man of action, as he sufficiently showed on the battle-field, he was somewhat of what Napoleon the First called an *idéologue*. The dream of united Germany was his favorite dream, as well as a restoration of a purely German Empire; and, understanding well the wishes and aspirations of the German people, he was willing, if necessary, to coerce the reluctant princes, and to use with regard to them the maxim "Compelle entrare." The campaign in Bohemia, in which he took such an important and decisive part, had led to such extraordinary results that he might well be forgiven for thinking that Prussia, in her work of unification, could find no serious obstacle in the ill will of a few princes. Though destined to wear the crown of Prussia, he was less of a Prussian than a German, and thus stood in contrast with his own father, who remained to the end convinced that Prussia was not to be merged into Germany, but that she should remain the nucleus of Germany, the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

great centre of attraction of all the German States.

These differences can be traced to different conceptions of the new German Empire. Is it to be or to become an empire in the Roman sense of the word, accommodated to modern necessities by parliamentary institutions—an empire embracing all the German-speaking provinces of Europe, with only an Emperor, an Upper and a Lower Chamber framing laws for all? Or is it to be an empire founded upon a hierarchy of princes and sovereigns, with an Emperor surrounded by confederate princes bound to the Emperor by a *feudum*, by treaties, and by conventions? Poets have sometimes extraordinary visions: Victor Hugo, in his famous monologue in "Hernani," when Don Carlos is waiting for the result of the imperial election, places in his mouth words which are not a bad description of the great empire of Charlemagne, supported by his vassal kings, princes, and electors.

The idea of German unity did not always take that form. After the Revolution of 1848, the Frankfort Parliament wished to constitute a new Empire; there was for a time a vicar-general of this Empire, and finally the imperial crown was offered to Prussia. It was refused: the new crown was not to be the gift of a popular assembly. Prince Bismarck was among those who were the most resolutely adverse to the revolutionists of 1848. He spoke against the adoption of the Frankfort Imperial Constitution. "The Frankfort crown," he said, "may be very brilliant, but the gold which lends truth to its splendor must be added by melting into its composition the Prussian crown; and I cannot believe that its recasting is possible by means of the proposed Constitution." On the 9th of September, 1849, he said again:

"I deny that any desire has ever existed in the Prussian people for a national regeneration modelled on the theories of Frankfort. The policy of Frederick the Great has been frequently alluded to, and it has even been identified with the proposal of union. I am rather of opinion that Frederick II. would have turned to the most prominent peculiarity of Prussian nationality, to her warlike element, and not without result. He would have known that to-day, as in the era of our fathers, the sound of the trumpet which calls to the standard of the father of the country, has lost none of its charm for Prussian ears, whether the question concern the defence of the frontier or the fame or greatness of Prussia."

It has been said that the publication of the Diary of Frederick III. would diminish the claims of Prince Bismarck, considered as one of the founders of the new German Empire and of German unity. It does not seem so to me. The extracts which I have just given (and I might give many more, conceived in the same spirit) show conclusively that Prince Bismarck has never understood German unity as it was understood by many of the framers of the abortive Constitution of Frankfort. He always maintained that Prussia would have the right to decide what the nature of the Constitution should be, at the risk of casting the sword in the balance; and the sword was cast when, after the Danish war, Austria and Prussia fought for the hegemony of Germany. Nothing can show better the character of the German policy of Prince Bismarck than his conduct after Sadowa: with regard to Hanover, he used, to its full extent, the right of the conqueror; he spared Saxony and Austria, and he did not deprive them of a single province. It was enough for him that Hanover should cease to form an independent country in the very heart of Prussia, and that Prussia should have the hegemony of all the German provinces, as far as the Main. He did not wish to inflict on Austria such a blow that she could not forget or forgive. After Sadowa, the Prussian armies might have pursued their victory and entered Vienna triumphantly. They did not, and the preliminaries of Nikolsburg were signed.

This policy has borne its fruits: Austria and Prussia are now allied by the strongest ties. In certain eventualities their armies would be united in the field, and this certainty has become the best guarantee of European peace. Those who may be inclined to reproach Prince Bismarck with wavering and hesitating on the subject of the Constitution of the new German Empire, will do well to reflect on the results of the policy of Prussia after Sadowa. History may be familiarly compared to a fine piece of tapestry: we see generally only one side of it, and it is not usual to look on the side where the design is vague, where the colors seem mixed, and where strings of silk or wool hang in confusion. Few know all that remains hidden, for instance, under the great work of Italian unity. What we see is only the result: we are ignorant of many of the means—the obscure, sometimes the immoral instruments, the hesitations, the fears, the treasons, the dirty work of the kitchen. I doubt whether Cavour kept a diary; but if he did, and if he told everything in his diary, what should we not find in it! It is perhaps as well that history, in its great lines, should assume rapidly a legendary form.

The creation of the new German Empire, sprung out of the war of 1870, was not an artificial work; it was, in fact, the result of a work which had been going on for more than half a century in the German mind, which had remained tentative, which had at times been fostered by popular revolution, and sometimes by the ambition of sovereigns. It is not to be wondered at if, at the moment when the dream was becoming a reality, when all the German energies were united, when all aspirations were common, those who had the responsibilities of the situation felt some anxiety and some hesitation. All the allies of Prussia had responded readily to her call; could she sacrifice them? All the confederate princes had lent their armies to the Emperor William; was it for him to humble them and to deprive them of their rights? Practically, the question to solve was this: Was the imperial crown to be offered to the King of Prussia by popular assemblies, or by a great German assembly like that of Frankfort, or was it to be offered by the German princes, and what were to be the new relations of the princes and the Emperor?

The work of Italian unity ended in the destruction of all the Italian States save one: Parma, Modena, the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, are no more; the Pope has lost his temporal power. Such has not been the solution adopted by Prince Bismarck and his sovereign. "E pluribus unum" has been their device. Believers, as they both were, in the rights of kings (qualified by the right of conquest), both enemies of what is vaguely called revolution, they did not give the imperial power the basis of the popular will: they preserved the historical continuity, as far as events allowed them to do so, and left their autonomy to all the German States that entered into the great confederacy, at the head of which stands the Emperor, still King of Prussia. The army still remains the pillar of the state, and Prussia still remains the pillar of the Empire. There has really been no radical change in the views of Prince Bismarck, since 1849; he remained, when he respectfully opposed some of the views of Frederick III., what he was at the time when, in all the vigor of youth, he opposed the German policy of Herr von Radowitz.

MILTON'S LEONORA.

MANTUA, September 11, 1888.

THE investigations of Alessandro Ademollo into the early history of Italian music, and especially of the opera, have brought out many interesting facts with regard to the life of Milton's Leonora, to whom the poet wrote three Latin epigrams, and who probably inspired some of his sonnets. The various monographs of Signor Ademollo are dry and hard to read; but they contain many documents and extracts from contemporary authors, and offer us a glimpse of an interesting period in the life of a small court, as well as of intrigues at Rome in the seventeenth century.

The well-known Eastern traveller, Pietro della Valle, wrote to a friend in 1640:

"Whoever has seen or heard, as I have, Signora Adriana in her youthful years, with that beauty which all the world knows of, sitting among the nets on the seashore at Posilippo, with her gilded harp in her hand, must needs confess that even in our times there are sirens on those shores; but beneficent sirens, adorned with beauty as well as virtue, and not, like the ancient ones, malevolent and man-killing."

This siren was Adriana (or more properly Andreana) Basile, born at Posilippo about 1580, one of a numerous family. Her brother, Giovanni Battista Basile, obtained some literary reputation, but is chiefly known as the author of the 'Pentamerone' or 'Lo cunto de li cunte,' dear to all lovers of folk-lore and tales, which, though not published till after his death, was immediately translated into German and English, as well as into Italian, and even into Bolognese. Her husband, Muzio Barone, was in the service of one of the Caraffas, Prince of Stigliano, who kept him occupied in managing one of his distant estates, while the beautiful Adriana held a sort of musical court at Naples, where she was adored by all the poets, wits, and fine young gentlemen of the time. These, beginning with Caraffa himself, addressed her adulatory verses, all more or less bad. Even the poet Marino knew her before being obliged to run away from Naples, and wrote for her six sonnets and two madrigals; while, long after, the remembrance of her inspired him with the celebrated octave in the seventh canto of the 'Adone.' Although Marino says, at a time when she was very old or already dead,

> ". . . intenerir col dolce canto
> Suol la bell' Adriana i dolci affetti,
> E con la voce e con la vista intanto
> Ir per due strade e saettare i petti,"

and Chiabrera and other poets even give particular descriptions of her, yet we must believe that her beauty came chiefly from her voice and from her expression. We know that she had the rare combination of golden or blond hair with very black eyes, and that her hands were white and shapely; but her portraits are not attractive, and Cardinal Gonzaga, before hearing her sing, said only that she was "rather beautiful than otherwise"; while another priest (who was, however, more concerned about her soul than her body) wrote: "She is a stout lady, and although not pretty, is not so ugly as I have been given to understand. As far as I have been able to find out with the greatest diligence, she leads an honest life, but is, nevertheless, an alluring and wonderfully seductive siren—a Neapolitan Armida."

When the fair Adriana was at the height of her reputation at Naples, her portrait and the accounts given of her induced Vincenzo Gonzaga, Duke of Mantua, to invite her to become one of the inmates of his musical harem. The

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Duke, who had enjoyed, and apparently had deserved, much ill-repute in his early life (although he does not really seem to have been much to blame for the death of the Admirable Crichton, whom he has been accused of murdering in cold blood), held at this time the most brilliant court in Italy. He was a patron and protector of the fine arts; he had recently been honored by the visit of Rubens; and his company of singers and musicians was the best in Europe. At first Adriana did not require much persuasion; but she suddenly repented, and there was need of all the efforts of the Duke's special envoy, and of many letters from himself and the Duchess to the Viceroy of Naples and to Princess Stigliano, succeeding each other rapidly for three months, to induce the singer to start. After still further delay at Rome and Florence, she finally arrived at Mantua at the end of June, and immediately joined the Duchess at her country place of Porto, as she was attached to her service. The Duke came on at once to hear her sing. She pleased, and she rapidly acquired great influence. The Duke showed her marked attention and constantly gave her presents; the Duchess could not live without her, as she was the sole consolation in her bad health.

There was a very amusing correspondence between Adriana and the Cardinal Gonzaga, with a curious mixture of thanks for presents and requests for a bit of the true cross from Cardinal Borghese; instead of which, the Cardinal being ill, she only received medals and rosaries. She expressed her gratitude for two love songs and remarks on the manner of singing them; and, in acknowledging the medals, asked for "some ballad or gay little song," and wished him the Papacy. The Cardinal made a short visit to Mantua, where he enjoyed her society, and the next winter wanted to take her to Naples with him. This was, of course, impossible, as she had much to do at court, in addition to the regular Friday concerts, where she sang madrigals composed for her by the Cardinal, as well as songs sent expressly to her from Savona by Chiabrera, who was in receipt of a pension from the Duke, and who recommended that "they should be sung in a noble audience suited to such a great singer."

During a temporary absence of Adriana in Milan, where she was greatly tempted to remain, the poor Duchess of Mantua, Eleanora de' Medici, died, and the Duke, though himself far from well, immediately set about looking for a new wife, and even thought of remarrying his first wife, a Princess of Parma, whom he had divorced and sent into a convent. What was most necessary to him was a large dowry, for in a reign of twenty-five years he had run through twenty millions of gold scudi, and his exchequer was at a very low ebb. He had frequent itchings to have recourse to alchemy; but although some experiments were made in the Palazzo di Te, and there were efforts to buy up the secrets of professors of the great art, he generally recoiled before the expense, as alchemy turned out to be the most costly way of producing gold yet discovered. He died, too, soon after, in February, 1612, but not before he had given to Adriana and her husband the barony and the title of Piancerreto, and had procured for their son, from the Duke of Savoy, the white cross of the order of SS. Maurizio and Lazzaro. Just about this time a little daughter was born to Adriana, who was named Leonora, and was christened in the Duke's chamber, he and his acknowledged mistress, the Marchesa di Grano, standing sponsors. On this occasion he presented the mother with a pearl necklace worth 300 ducats. This child was Milton's Leonora.

Duke Vincenzo was succeeded by his eldest son Francesco, who immediately made very necessary reforms in the court; but the position of Adriana and her husband remained unchanged. Indeed, we have a very charming picture of the ducal matrimonial felicity, in a letter from the Duchess, Margherita of Savoy, begging Adriana to come and console her with her singing while the Duke is out fishing in the Mincio; and another from the Duke describing his luck, sending her some of the catch, as well as fruit from his garden. Francesco reigned scarcely ten months, when he died of the smallpox, and was succeeded by his brother Ferdinand, the Cardinal, who obtained a dispensation to marry, and resigned his sacred office in favor of his younger brother Vincenzo. This latter, when engaged in the siege of Nizza, found nothing better to do than to write to Adriana the details of his valorous exploits. Ferdinand was detained in his lovely villa, La Favorita, by a fever, and begged Adriana to come and visit him; but although he signed the letter, "The sick Cardinal Duke of Mantua," he dated it, "In the Ducal Bed," and Adriana thought it more prudent to pay a visit to Verona, which was desired by the Marchesa di Canossa; whereupon the Cardinal used the language of a sovereign, and she remained at Mantua, and thus persuaded the Cardinal to use his authority in collecting some debts due to her in Naples, and in enabling her son to make a good marriage there. The better to affirm her position, Adriana had her pretty sister Margherita come on from Naples—one sister was already in Mantua. Margherita was in high favor for about two months, when she was married to a Mantuan gentleman and given a large dowry, "in consideration of her great services"; and the Duke married the unfortunate Camilla Faa, who was obliged to take the veil after the birth of a son. The Duke then married Catherine Medici, sister of Cosmo II. Vincenzo became only nominally a Cardinal, for he never went to Rome nor received the hat. On the contrary, he secretly married a lady whom he afterwards maltreated; for, it being bruited about that she had bewitched him, she was sent to Rome and imprisoned in the Castle of St. Angelo. Pope Paul V. was so indignant that he ordered that for a hundred years no member of the house of Gonzaga should become a cardinal.

During this time Adriana seems to have been a little in the shade, and, while her younger sisters were superseding her, went to Rome, where she found the customary worship of the sonneteers and the kindly attentions of three distinguished cardinals; and then to Naples, where she was able to show that she had not been dismissed in disgrace by the frequent and amiable letters of both the Duke and the Duchess. After her return to Mantua she reached the culmination of her glory in the great Festival of 1621, in honor of the election of Pope Gregory XV. and the accession of Philip IV. to the throne of Spain, and in the visit of the Mantuan Court to Venice in 1623, where she created a veritable furore. Next year Adriana went again to Naples, leaving at Mantua, as hostages for her return, her younger children, including Leonora. She never returned. First, she had fears of war, and then she again became a mother, although her eldest son had been married several years. The Duchess hinted to Adriana that she was not likely to return so long as the Duke of Alba was viceroy of Naples; but the real reason was, that there were negotiations on foot for her going with her two daughters to Warsaw, to the court of Prince Vladislas Sigismond, the elected Grand Duke of Muscovy. This project proved impossible, and Adriana again turned her thoughts to the Court of Mantua; but the Duke Ferdinand died, and the next year his successor, Vincenzo II.; and the French Duc de Nevers, who succeeded him, would have none of her.

Meanwhile Leonora was growing up. At the age of sixteen she was already celebrated at Naples; and in 1633, when she was twenty-two, the family moved to Rome, where their frequent concerts gave them a distinguished position. It must have been at these concerts that Milton made the acquaintance of Adriana and Leonora. He could not have seen them at the theatre in the palace of the Cardinal Barberini, of which he speaks in a letter to Holstenius, because at that time women were not permitted to act on the stage, and in the Barberini at least were not admitted even as spectators. This theatre had been built in 1633; and during the Carnival of 1634, Prince Alexander Charles of Poland being in Rome, a melodrama or opera was performed there called "St. Alexis," the music by Stefano Landi, and the drama by Giulio Rospigliosi, afterwards Pope Clement IX. Another melodrama on a religious subject—what would now be called an oratorio—the "Life of St. Theodora," was played there in the carnival of the two following years, after which, oratorios having been admitted into the monasteries, the Barberini theatre emancipated itself from sacred subjects, and gave in 1637 "Il Falcone," and in 1639 a comic opera, "Chi soffra speri," written also by the future Pope. The carnival that year finished on the 8th of March. We have two descriptions of the performance on March 1, probably the one which Milton attended, on a Sunday, too—one in a despatch from Montecuccoli to the Duke of Modena, and another in the *Avvise di Roma*. It is estimated that 3,500 people were present, most of whom were received at the door by Cardinal Antonio, who stood waiting (not Cardinal Francesco Barberini, as Milton mistakenly says). Great praise was given to the music, the costumes, and especially to the scenery, which represented in one act part of the Barberini Gardens, and in another the Fair of Farfa; there being in both cases many horses, carriages, and carts introduced on the stage. The musical partition exists in the Barberini library; the libretto is nowhere to be found.

Italian writers will have it that Milton was a lover of Leonora, this being to them a natural explanation of his admiration for her. But there seems not to be the slightest reason for such a statement, except such inferences as may be drawn from Milton's own poems. In the same year in which he was in Rome, Cardinal Richelieu, with projects in his head for opera at Paris, sent to Rome André Maugars, his favorite viola-player, who made a report to him dated October 1, 1639, from which—as it is a very rare pamphlet—I quote. Speaking of two other singers he says:

"They do not seem to me to sing so agreeably as Leonora, daughter of that beautiful Adriana of Mantua, who was a miracle in her day, and who worked a still greater one in bringing into the world the most perfect person for singing well. I should think myself doing wrong to the talent of this illustrious Leonora if I should not mention her to you as a wonder of the world. . . . I shall limit myself to telling you only that she has the gift of a fine wit, and very good judgment in discerning bad from good music, which she understands perfectly well, since she composes, so that she knows what she is singing, and pronounces well, and expresses the sense of the words. She does not pique herself on being pretty, but she is neither disagreeable nor coquettish. She sings with an assured modesty, a generous simplicity, and a sweet gravity. Her voice is of great compass, true, sonorous, and harmonious, which she softens and swells without effort or grimaces. Her

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

outbursts and her sighs are not lascivious. Her looks are not immodest, and her gestures such as suit a young girl. In passing from one tone to another, she sometimes causes one to feel the divisions of the enharmonic and chromatic scales with so much skill and charm that every one is delighted with this beautiful and difficult method of singing. She has no need to beg the aid of a theorbo or a viol, for she plays both instruments perfectly well. I have had the pleasure of hearing her sing several times—more than thirty different airs, with second and third couplets which she composed herself. One day she did me the special favor to sing together with her mother and sister, her mother playing the lyre, her sister the harp, and herself the theorbo. This concert, composed of three beautiful voices and three different instruments, surprised so much my fancy, and carried me off into such a rapture, that I forgot my mortal condition and thought that I was among the angels."

The ultimate effect of this letter was that Leonora, with her husband Giulio Cesare Castellani, was invited to Paris in 1644 by Cardinal Mazarin, who had probably himself known her in Rome when he was an intimate of the Barberini Palace. There is probably an allusion to her in one of the libels of the Fronde, 'Lettre d'un religieux au Prince de Condé,' written by Brusse, the Curé of St. Roch, which says: "Qui ne scait ce que coustent à la France les comédiens-chanteurs qu'il a fait venir d' Italie, parmi lesquels estoit une infâme qu'il avoit desbouchée à Rome, e par l'entremise de laquelle il s'étoit mis dans les bonnes grâces du Cardinal Antonio?"

Leonora arrived in Paris in March, 1644, and remained there till April, 1645, when she returned to Rome, and there passed the remainder of her life (Fétis to the contrary notwithstanding). She is mentioned by Mme. de Motteville in her Memoirs, and we are told that once, when Anne of Austria was walking in her gardens, she met the poet Voiture silent and sad, and on asking him what he was thinking about, he replied with an impromptu containing an allusion to love and to the Duke of Buckingham. The Queen took it in good part, and Leonora, who had a good memory, immediately sang the words to one of her airs. A letter from the Abbé Scaglia to Christine de France, Regent of Savoy, tells how well she was looked upon in France, how she was lodged and maintained in a house belonging to the Cardinal, and what fine presents had been given to her by the Queen, the Duke of Orleans, and others of the Court. Among them, the wife of Charles I., Queen Henrietta Maria, then living at the Louvre, presented the friend of Milton with a diamond ring worth more than a thousand scudi.

Monsignor Rospigliosi, the author of the opera acted at the Palazzo Barberini, wrote also a sonnet on Leonora's picture, which was included with others in the 'Applausi Poetici,' published in her honor in the year of Milton's visit. When Adriana was dead, and Leonora, her sister, and her niece had begun again their musical evenings after her return from Paris, the house was frequented by cardinals, and Rospigliosi was one of the most constant visitors. He was made a cardinal in 1657, and seems almost immediately to have been considered *papabile*. While Alexander VII. was still in good health, there was, as always, talk of his probable successor. Donna Berenice Chigi, wife of the Pope's nephew, meeting Leonora one day, said sarcastically: "Signora Leonora, my Pope is in excellent health: how is yours getting on?" In 1667 Leonora got her Pope, for Rospigliosi ascended the papal chair as Clement IX. The new Pope was at first a little shy of Leonora's influence, but he gradually yielded to it, and no one was scandalized; for he was sixty-seven years old, and his conduct had been thought exemplary, although he had always been gallant and polite. He was no sooner elected than he sent presents to the ladies, and especially to his gossips. Raggi, the Genoese Resident at Rome, wrote: "He is very amiable to the singer Leonora, called the Adrianella. The Duke of Bracciano sent the Pope a queen-fish (*regina*) from his lake, weighing fifty pounds. The Pope sent it to Signora Leonora as the queen of *virtuose*."

At this time Leonora tried to pose as a fine lady, and would have been glad to conceal her quality of singer. At a reception at the Venetian Embassy, while she was making her compliments, the Marchesa Spada said: "This is Signora Leonora Castellana, the *virtuosa*. You may perhaps have known how famous she is for singing. She has sung very well in Rome and France; and to the Queen, too." Leonora grew red, and replied, evidently annoyed: "I only sang three times to the Queen. I am known otherwise." On going away she kept complaining of the Marchesa for having revealed her musical faculties, saying: "What coldness, what coldness, what insipid praises! Why hunt up such memories?" Leonora was obliged to submit to many such petty slights, but she nevertheless maintained her position, and was considered almost to belong to the papal household. Her house was a meeting-place of society; she always had her following of cardinals, and sometimes even the Pope himself visited her; and, when seeing her in public, would indulge in familiar little jests which made the cardinals laugh. Raggi reports: "The Rospigliosi family have been again to the Pope, together with the singer Leonora, who complained that the Cardinal de' Medici had left Rome without visiting her," and he adds malignantly and falsely, "She was a little beggar of very low birth, who has made her way by her music and her tongue; a woman who has always been acquainted with everybody, and yet Rome insists on considering her chaste. Fortunate woman!" But Raggi's remarks grow more favorable. On July 26, 1668, he tells of her usual fête for the Scuola Pia, which was crowded; on the 5th of August, that she had received 1,000 scudi from the King of France in part payment of the arrears of her pension, the Pope having praised her to the French Ambassador.

"August 29, 1668.—Leonora, the singer, continually advances in his Holiness's graces. There is not a week in which he does not give her presents three or four times. He has just sent her one of above 400 scudi; but she gives no tips to the messengers, saying that all would go in tips—hers she reserves for Christmas and Easter."

"November 7, 1668.—The Spanish Ambassador was invited by Prince Savelli to a feast at Albano. . . . The Ambassador [the Duke Astorga, of whom many queer stories are told] danced until night, always keeping his spectacles on. . . . Signora Leonora was determined not to dance, was implored by the Ambassador, and at last let herself be overcome. Never is there a day without her receiving a dish from Castelgandolfo, from the Pope's kitchen; and should this fail one day, on the next they send her two."

"March 23, 1669.—At the house of Leonora, the singer, there was a musical representation, and all the Rospigliosi, male as well as female, were present. Leonora sang, and her niece and Monsignore Casale. In every circumstance of his career she has always been the Pope's favorite, and is so now more than ever; and every one seeking a favor has recourse to her."

This is the last mention of her except that she died in April, 1670, less than four months after the death of her protector, Pope Clement.

E. S.

Correspondence.

WHERE ARE THE PLATFORMS?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As the campaign draws to its close, it occurs to me that it would be an interesting task to endeavor to answer the question which heads this communication. The merits of the respective platforms were thoroughly discussed at the time of their adoption: it is curious to observe how they have stood the wear of three months' service.

Let me say at the outstart that we may at once reject all the useless rhetoric in which documents of that kind are apt to abound. In a vigorous condition of party life, where a large body of men is cemented by the force of conviction, simplicity in the party's declaration is inevitable. No two ideas could possibly be brought to bear upon such an organization without producing hopeless cross divisions. The endeavor to utilize local currents of every sort indicates, therefore, only the decay of genuine and healthy political activity—shows that there is a considerable body of men who can be held to their allegiance by appeals and flattery which an intelligent man would despise, that the party is no longer animated by a single purpose, that it contains within it those who are beyond the reach of ideas. Whatever declarations these platforms contain which can be properly called party matters, are easily reduced to a single head. The question of civil-service reform, for example, cannot by any means be made a party question: its sole hope is the transformation of political life by the infusion of serious interest into our public affairs, and in the adoption of its principles by men of all parties. As it is now, there is no public man except the President who has shown a thorough understanding of its principles; and the President is so handicapped by his failure to secure it firmly that his power to do good has been greatly lessened. The reform must be upheld strictly for four years, and must have stood the test of a change of parties in the Presidential office, before it can be considered as finally established; and the leaven which is just beginning to affect our national life has yet far to spread until we can count upon this. As for the other issues raised in these platforms (the questions of Trusts, of pensions, etc.), they are mere corollaries to the one vital question of the hour, that of tariff taxation.

If the Republican platform has any meaning at all—and it contains no statement more explicit—the party was pledged to maintain the tariff as it stands, even if it became necessary to abolish the entire internal-revenue system, whiskey tax and all. Notice now, that, unlike the sweeping general statements in which astute politicians are supposed to say much and mean nothing, here is proposed a perfectly practicable scheme of legislation; it differs from the denunciation of Trusts in the same document in that it proposes an end which an Act of Congress can at once secure. It says nothing, moreover, of maintaining the principle of the tariff while submitting its details to revision; it is an emphatic protest against touching it at all, and so the Republicans in the House interpreted it.

A very slight experience with this "plank" convinced its authors that the thing would not serve; and not only has it been sedulously ignored, but every speaker or writer has proceeded to formulate his own notion of just what the party intends to do. In the course of this operation some curious conflicts have arisen,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

which must have seriously disquieted the gentlemen charged with the conduct of the Republican canvass. Mr. Harrison, for example, escaped the difficulty by wisely remarking that the question was really too remote to require discussion. Mr. Blaine, disdaining to take the hint, while accepting the platform, has yet found repeated opportunity to oppose the repeal of the whiskey tax. To make matters still worse, the contingency which, a few weeks ago, seemed to Mr. Harrison too remote to require consideration, has suddenly become so pressing that at this late day the Republicans have introduced into the Senate a bill to reduce the revenue some $75,000,000. The situation is still further complicated by a grave doubt as to the sincerity of this last move. Between the platform, Mr. Harrison, Mr. Blaine, the Senate, and the House, each in its sphere the official instrument of the party, how is a disinterested voter, eager to vote intelligently and dispassionately—how is such a voter, Mr. Quay, to decide?

But the real position of the party on this question—the question of the "condition, not the theory," the question as to how it proposes to meet the details of the tariff problem, is, to my mind, of less importance than the mere fact of the hopeless confusion of counsels which prevails in its ranks, indicating, as it does, the utter absence of purpose, its utter helplessness in the presence of a serious difficulty. Consider for a moment what intensity of conviction must animate the main body of the party when each of its accredited leaders is thus independently permitted to define its policy and to tamper with its official declarations! We can draw from this but one conclusion: on this grave question the party is incapable of carrying out as a unit any scheme of action, be it good or bad.

The attitude of the Democratic party, on the other hand, gives them two decided advantages: (1.) Their position is in perfect accord with that of their leader. The platform itself was somewhat timid. It was a mistake, it seems to me, to endorse the Mills Bill by an independent resolution, rather than in the platform itself; but any doubt that may have arisen at that time has been happily dissipated. The progress of events, instead of carrying the party away from any definite course of action, has steadily fastened it to such a course more and more securely. The vote by which the Mills Bill was passed, the President's letter of acceptance, the unmistakable tone of Mr. Thurman's speeches, the complete disappearance of Mr. Randall and his few adherents from the scene of action, the eager and general acceptance of the Mills Bill throughout the party, are conclusive and final as to its ultimate purpose.

(2.) The unequivocal stand of the Democratic party has united to it the disinterested intelligence of the country. In the ideal republic, the conduct of every citizen is actuated only by the purest considerations; among us at this moment the number of those who so govern themselves, or who are able so to govern themselves, is small. It is not, indeed, so small but that in States where votes are most needed they may decide the contest; but their real importance lies quite apart from this. It is this small body of thinking men to whom we must look to give tone, elevation, character to the nation. If, indeed, as a nation, we are ever to be thoroughly united by the bonds of intellectual sympathies, by the tie of common aspirations; if we are ever to produce poets, philosophers, and statesmen who are to exemplify and interpret to the world the American ideal, and if this expression is to possess any abiding value, then in the increase of this body and the spread of its influence lies our only hope. For the first time, the generation which has known only the experience of the last decade sees this influence again making its way, slowly yet effectively, into the atmosphere of common life; but our politicians, who have, as a class, little sympathy with ideas, and no appreciation of their subtle but insuperable force, have yet to learn that before their insidious attack the whole structure of error and falsehood must crumble into ruin.

It is plain, then, that, while the Republicans began with a clear statement of their intentions, they have steadily drifted away from it, and that the party is rapidly disintegrating. On the other hand, beginning somewhat doubtfully, the Democratic party is every moment more completely identifying itself with the policy on which reason, philosophy, and patriotism alike unite. This is not, however, the policy of free trade: a contest between protection and free trade would at least be rational, but for such a contest the present one is only preparing the way. There is no feature of the Mills Bill, in fact, which the faith of a sincere but disinterested protectionist would require him to reject. The theory of protection requires only such duties as equalize competition, not duties which, like the present ones, give the home manufacturer an incontestable monopoly. The fight is, therefore, not against protection, but against protection run mad—against the whole breed of vicious and injurious notions to which a surfeited treasury has given rise. It is a struggle, therefore, claiming far more importance than could be claimed for a mere matter of economical policy. The Blair Bill, the Texas Seed Bill, the Dependent Pension Bill, River and Harbor Bills, Public Building Bills — does not the place which these measures occupy in the national legislature speak volumes as to the tone of our public life, as to its gradual usurpation of functions which can only corrupt it, as to the predominance in its deliberations of influences of "which all honest men should beware"? When men like Sherman and Edmunds yield to an infection like this, has not the evil already taken deep hold? A more righteous war has not been waged, indeed, since the war against slavery; and the mental and moral obliquity of those who succeeded in persuading themselves that slavery was a natural and beneficent institution, has much in common with the attitude of men who can honestly believe that the present tariff, instead of being iniquitous and dangerous, is really a source of good to all.

F.

Louisville, Ky., October 11, 1888.

THE TEACHER AND THE COMMUNITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Several of our leading periodicals have of late much deplored the fact that the personality of the teacher has come to count for so little in our public schools, and attribute this serious defect largely to the custom in most of our cities which gives the preference to teachers who have been graduated from their own schools, and who, familiar only with the methods there employed, repeat the same processes until they "become automatons, capable of imparting only cut-and-dried information."

In happy contrast to this machine-like system, I wish to call attention to the public schools of a Western town where it has for years been the policy of the School Board never to employ one of their own graduates. The teachers, carefully chosen with reference to character and training, come from different sections of the country, and sometimes represent almost as many States as individuals. Thus various methods are suggested, new and large views of life are interchanged, and a tolerant spirit is promoted. While there is an able superintendent, each teacher is allowed in large measure to work out results after her own ideas. The personality of the teacher thus becomes a large factor, and makes of each room a workshop for character building no less than for mind training.

Seldom does a public school enter so largely into the vital interests of a town as this. It is not unusual for the pastors of the several churches to address the teachers upon the responsibilities of their high calling, and also to announce as a special theme the duty of the parents towards the teachers, in giving them cordial entrance to their homes, and in cultivating that friendly acquaintance which necessarily brings the child into closer sympathy with both parent and teacher. The result has been beneficial in a marked degree, and it is no exaggeration to say that the teachers have had a large part in shaping the social environments of their scholars.

The ability of the teachers is indicated by the fact that many of them have been called to higher institutions of learning, while some have achieved a national reputation; but we may believe that the moral result of their teaching is due largely to the liberal spirit and friendly tone of the citizens, which have made it possible for the teachers to develop their true worth, and to leave behind them living influences which cannot fail to aid their successors in fitting the youth for intelligent and worthy citizenship.

C.

September 28, 1888.

ALLITERATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few years ago, Professor Zupitza, in reviewing some book on English literature, asked with a sort of pathos when people were going to stop talking of 1328 as the birth-year of Chaucer. By this time, perhaps, his complaint is groundless. But there is another error which, ancient enough, seems to be enjoying a remarkably green old age. It is the idea that alliteration consists in the agreement of the initial letters of two or more words. The dictionaries support this statement. According to Worcester's definition, we have alliteration in two words like "get" and "gnaw"; still more unhesitatingly would "rebel" and "return" be accepted as an alliteration. It is surprising enough to find Grant Allen, in his book on 'Anglo-Saxon Britain,' stating (p. 203) that "what answered to rhyme [in Anglo-Saxon verse] was a regular and marked alliteration, each couplet having a certain *key-letter*, with which three principal words in the couplet began." Now, every student of philology knows what a mass of error has resulted from this fatal trick of talking about a letter when we mean a sound. "Alliteration" is rhyme, as Grant Allen intimates; only it is the beginning, not the end, of a syllable which we regard. We do not call "bough" and "cough" a rhyme, nor "swaying" and "climbing." Similarly, for alliteration, with "get" and "gnaw," "rebel" and "return." In short, alliteration is an agreement of initial sounds in accented syllables. This ought to be a truism; but when Grant Allen prints "Ætheling" as alliterating with "Eternal," there is evidently room for the missionary.

Yours, etc., Francis B. Gummere.

Haverford College, October 6, 1888.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co.'s forthcoming publications include 'From Flag to Flag: Experiences and Adventures in the South during the War in Mexico and in Cuba'; 'Florida of To-Day,' a guide for tourists and settlers, by James Wood Davidson; 'A Dictionary of Terms of Art,' illustrated; 'A Manual of Decorative Composition,' by Henri Mayeux, also illustrated; 'Nature and Man: Essays Scientific and Philosophical,' by the late Dr. W. B. Carpenter; 'Astronomy with an Opera-Glass,' by Garrett P. Serviss, illustrated; 'The Folk-Lore of Plants,' by T. F. Thiselton Dyer; 'Handbook of Historical and Geographical Phthisiology,' by Dr. Geo. A. Evans; 'The Development of the Intellect,' from the German of W. Preyer; 'Memory: What It Is and How to Improve It,' by David Kay; 'Outlines of Pedagogics,' by F. W. Parker; 'Hints about Men's Dress,' by W. H. Barrett; 'How She Did It; or, Comfort on $150 a Year,' by Mary Cruger; 'Raleigh Westgate; or, Epimenides in Maine,' by Helen Kendrick Johnson; and 'The Secret of Fontaine-la-Croix,' by Margaret Field.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have in preparation 'Distinguished Witnesses to the Great Value and Success of Foreign Missions.'

Thomas Whittaker is about to publish a library edition of Pascal's 'Thoughts,' from the text of Molinier, by C. Kegan Paul. He will also begin a new series of illustrated books under the title of "Whittaker's Home Library."

Macmillan & Co. will bring out directly a handsome two-volume edition, Globe octavo, of 'Robert Elsmere,' uniform in size with their edition of Matthew Arnold's writings, and manufactured expressly for the American market.

'Her Only Brother,' from the German of "W. Heimburg" (Bertha Behrens), is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Next month, Ginn & Co., Boston, will have ready 'A Brief History of Greek Philosophy,' by B. C. Burt.

Miss Minna Irving's poem, "The Haunted Heart," which appeared in the *Century* in 1885, will furnish the title to a volume of selected verse to be published by Belford, Clarke & Co. on November 1.

Wm. Henry Hurlbert's 'Ireland under Coercion,' which in Scotland bears the imprint of David Douglas, Edinburgh, is to be issued here by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. They will shortly publish also the First Supplement to 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature,' edited by W. F. Poole and W. I. Fletcher; and new editions of the Poetical Works of the late Emma Lazarus, and of Hawthorne's 'Scarlet Letter,' the latter illustrated by Mary Hallock Foote.

A new and complete edition of the works of the poet and critic Giosué Carducci is announced by Zanichelli of Bologna. It will form about twenty 16mo volumes of about 400 pages each, obtainable separately at four francs apiece. Zanichelli has been for some time the publisher of the poems of Carducci; but this author's critical and literary essays have been dispersed through many books, in part as prefaces and critical introductions, and have never before been collected. The first volume now in press, 'Discorsi Letterari,' includes his recent address at the eighth centenary of the University of Bologna, his lecture on the work of Dante, commemorative addresses on Virgil, Petrarch, and Boccaccio, and his lectures on the development of the national literature and on the literary revival in Italy.

Arminius Vámbéry, the well-known Hungarian traveller and writer on Eastern subjects, is at present at Constantinople together with Mr. William Fraknói, the Secretary-General of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. They are nominally engaged in looking for further remains of the celebrated library of Mathias Corvinus, which was taken from Buda to Constantinople during the Turkish occupation. Some waifs from this library were presented by the Sultan to the Royal Library some years ago during one of the enthusiastic *rapprochements* between Hungary and Turkey. More books, however, are believed still to exist, either in the library of the seraglio or in the collections of the chief mosques. Mr. Vámbéry has, besides, the intention of studying the changes in Turkey since he was last there, and will probably collect his notes into a volume. He has been received by the Sultan, who told him that his works had aided in imparting to the foreign mind a correct knowledge of the principles and doctrines of Islam; and who, in recognition of his literary merits, conferred upon him the Grand Cordon of the Order of the Medjidie.

A fresh issue of Sir Walter Scott's edition of Anthony Hamilton's 'Memoirs of Count Grammont' is ready for the season of costly publications (London: John C. Nimmo; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). It is in one volume, the largest octavo, with broad margins, heavy paper, and handsome (though not matchless) typography. The illustrations, however, probably constitute its excuse for being. These consist of a portrait of Hamilton, plus thirty-four etchings, great and small, by French artists—L. Boisson, after C. Delort. The most of these are ornamental vignettes, of no little delicacy and grace, and all have been carefully studied with reference to the costume of the period. The designer has seized the grosser opportunities afforded by the dissolute text for a few plates that could be spared, however much in keeping with their surroundings.

Mrs. Brookfield's 'Collection of Letters of Thackeray, 1847–1855,' has just been revived in a very dainty edition by Charles Scribner's Sons. The rubricated title-page is still further adorned by a portrait of Thackeray in a harmonious tint.

Four more volumes of the new translations from Victor Hugo, in course of publication by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., have been received. The two volumes of 'L'Homme qui rit' have been rendered into English by Miss Isabel Hapgood, whose versions of 'Notre-Dame de Paris,' 'Les Misérables,' and 'Les Travailleurs de la Mer' have already been commended in the *Nation*. A quite unwarrantable liberty has been taken with the title of the present work, which has been altered without necessity into 'By Order of the King,' upon both the title-page and the cover, although a literal and entirely satisfactory translation of the original name, 'The Man Who Laughs,' is retained upon the first as a secondary and explanatory title, and is given as a heading to the pages throughout. In the original, "By Order of the King," is merely the name given to Part II. of the work. The two volumes of the 'History of a Crime' continue the series, which, with these personal recollections of the *Coup d'État*, goes beyond the romances of Victor Hugo into his political writings. The translation is a very readable one, and is by Mr. Huntington Smith.

Little, Brown & Co. are also publishing "Victor Hugo's Romances" in a new library edition, to be completed in twelve volumes, and to include translations of the five most famous of his prose fictions, 'Notre-Dame,' 'The Man Who Laughs,' 'The Toilers of the Sea,' 'Ninety-three,' and 'Les Misérables.' The last of these, in five volumes, was issued last year, and we now have 'Notre-Dame' in two volumes and 'Ninety-three' in one. The books are smaller and more compact than those of the edition published by T. Y. Crowell & Co. They are printed in large, clear type, upon handsome paper, at the University Press of Cambridge, so well known for the excellence of its work. 'Ninety-three' is well translated by Mrs. Aline Delano. The translations of 'Les Misérables' and of 'Notre-Dame' are the best English ones, revised, with all omissions supplied, and special translations of important chapters, as the publishers inform us.

From the same house we have the first of the series of "The D'Artagnan Romances," Alexandre Dumas's 'Three Musketeers,' in two volumes, brilliantly bound in highly-gilt cloth of a wine color. The typography is of parallel excellence with that of the Victor Hugos just described, and the size most convenient for the hands. A portrait of Dumas is prefixed.

In line with the foregoing for the gift season is the pocketable oblong 16mo 'Essays of Elia,' first fruits (to our knowledge) of the "Temple Library"—a limited edition, represented in this country by Macmillan & Co. The Chiswick Press has done well by these two volumes, of which the type is clear, if small, and the margins generous. Pretty etchings by Herbert Railton are scattered here and there, and Mr. Augustine Birrell has supplied a biographical sketch, and sparse, unobtrusive footnotes. This edition is one to be fond of, and therefore good to bestow.

A holiday garb is given to the American reprint of the 'Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám' in Edward Fitzgerald's English verse (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The merit of this edition is that it gives the fourth (and virtually final) form of the quatrains as worked over by the translator, as well as the first form, each having its special beauties and felicities, and both being cherishable by the lover of noble poetry. The editor has added, besides, some literal versions of his own by way of comparison, in a list of references to the sources upon which Fitzgerald drew; a biographical sketch of the English poet; Fitzerald's own account of Omar, and notes; and a letter to Mr. Quaritch, describing Omar's grave, which is pictured in the frontispiece. We predict a wide sale for this volume.

The Henry Irving Shakespeare (Scribner & Welford) has reached the fourth of its six volumes. The responsible editor, Mr. Frank A. Marshall, has the services of a corps of assistants; his supervising and suggestive hand is visible in the plays generally, but "Much Ado About Nothing" is the only one which he edits entirely by himself. Of the remaining four which the volume contains, "The Merry Wives of Windsor" shows the collaboration of the eminent textual scholar, Mr. P. A. Daniel, and "King Henry V." that of a new American hand, Mr. Oscar Fay Adams, who has, we believe, been an assistant of Mr. Rolfe in similar work. "As You Like It" is cared for by Mr. A. Wilson Verity, and "Twelfth Night" by Mr. Arthur Symons. Of the general merits of this edition we have already spoken. An appendix of corrections is promised for the last volume. The work will possess special interest as an example of the merits and demerits of coöperative scholarship in a particularly trying field; its success would be more doubtful were it not that so large a portion of the labor of the Shakspere commentator now is compilation and condensation from

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

older scholars. The illustrations are plentiful, but show no improvement.

John Bunyan is the subject of the latest issue in the "Great Writers Series" (London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker). Canon Venables is the author, and treats both the biography and the literary works of Bunyan fairly and discreetly. He has not attempted to do more than present briefly the facts of Bunyan's life, already known, and recently exhaustively treated by Dr. Brown, and to add the obvious remarks upon his place in our literature. The only new matter which he includes is the warrant for Bunyan's arrest in 1675, lately discovered among the Chauncey papers. This is dated March 4, 1675, and bears the signature of thirteen magistrates. It puts the fact of his third imprisonment beyond doubt, and it sustains the story of Bishop Barlow's alleged interference to procure his release, which has been questioned on the ground of discrepancy in dates; but it should be observed that the Bishop deserved little thanks for what he did. It was suggested by Dr. Brown that the 'Pilgrim's Progress' was begun during this third imprisonment, although he did not have such evidence as we now possess as to the fact of the imprisonment. Canon Venables supports this suggestion, and, as he states, the recovery of the actual date tends to confirm this view. This little Life of Bunyan, as a whole, is to be highly commended, avoiding, as it does, the dryness and tediousness of detail that were inseparable from Dr. Brown's voluminous narrative.

Prof. Charles F. Kroeh, of the Stevens Institute of Technology, adds to his series of 'Drill Books' a little thirty-page pamphlet on 'The Pronunciation of Spanish in Spain and America.' It is as accurate as it is compact, and would undoubtedly work well in the hands of a competent teacher. The phrase, "the Spanish colonies of America," is not well chosen as a term inclusive of Mexico and South America, and is particularly misleading as used by Prof. Kroeh, since the only existing Spanish colony, Cuba, does not, as stated, prevailingly sound *z* and *c* before *e* and *i*, like *s*.

Perhaps the best, because the freshest and most careful, of Mr. Gosse's 'Seventeenth Century Studies' is his paper on Etheredge, the first English dramatist to feel the influence of Molière. Mr. A. Wilson Verity has now edited 'The Works of Sir George Etheredge, Plays and Poems' (London: John C. Nimmo), with all needful notes, and a biographical introduction, in which he has utilized Mr. Gosse's paper, adding not a few illustrative facts of his own finding. As a dramatist, Etheredge is more important chronologically than he is dramatically, but the "Man of Mode; or, Sir Fopling Flutter," made its mark once, and can still be read with interest. The poems here collected are pleasant little bits of society verse, not unlike those of his friends, Sedley and Dorset; while they do not rise to the level of the best *vers de société* of their time, they are easy in style and even easier in morals.

In reviewing Mr. R. W. Lowe's recent edition of Dr. Doran's 'Annals of the Stage,' we expressed a hope that the editor might be induced to bring the book down to date. Now we are glad to learn that this hope is to be gratified, and that Mr. Lowe has in preparation a continuation of 'Their Majesties' Servants' from the death of Edmund Kean, where Dr. Doran left off, to the days of Mr. Henry Irving. It will be published in London by Mr. Nimmo. A continuation of Mr. Ireland's 'Records of the New York Stage' (which stopped in 1860) would be equally welcome.

M. Coquelin *cadet* has written a pleasant little preface for 'Le Guignol des Salons,' a collection of puppet-plays by M. L. Darthenay (Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit & Cie; New York: F. W. Christern). The dozen easy and amusing playlets contained in this volume are intended to be performed by Punch-and-Judy figures—puppets animated by the human thumb and fingers, skilfully concealed inside them. The English-speaking Punch-and-Judy theatre suffers from the monotony of its repertory, which is in fact confined to a single play, "The Life and Misadventures of Mr. Punch." The French, as becomes a race fond of the theatre, refuse to be bound down to a unique spectacle; and this book of M. Darthenay's, like M. de Neuville's 'Pupazzi,' shows that their freedom has been used to advantage.

M. Francis Decrue de Stoutz is a young and ambitious writer, who has hitherto confined his historical researches to the sixteenth century. His work 'La Cour de France et la Société française au xvi^e^ siècle' (Paris: Firmin Didot) is a collection of articles first published in the *Revue Suisse*, after having been delivered as lectures in Geneva, the author's native city. M. Decrue speaks of the 30,000 manuscript letters which he has "transcribed, analyzed, or read" in various European libraries. The present work, however, might have been written without consulting any manuscript authorities, for it contains nothing that cannot be found in some of the best-known and most elementary works on the sixteenth century. The now little read and rather uncritical Monteil has been used much too freely. In spite, however, of the excessive claims made by M. Decrue in his preface, his book is not without merit. It is easily read, and gives on the whole a fair impression of the general tone of thought and state of civilization and culture in the sixteenth century in France. The picture drawn is rather a flattering presentation of a period which had hard lines and dark sides that M. Decrue ignores almost wholly. Of the six chapters into which the work is divided, the third, on the different classes of society, is the most satisfactory.

Paris Illustré (New York: International News Co.) made its début on October 6 in an English dress, with a very palpable squint towards the American public. Its chief colored plates, in short, are portraits of the President and Mrs. Cleveland—the former being the more successful, to our thinking.

French caricaturists are the subject of an illustrated article in *L'Art* for September 1 (Macmillan), by M. Augustin de Buisseret. The occasion of it is a recent work by M. John Grand-Carteret, entitled 'Les Mœurs et la Caricature en France,' of which the appendices have a high bibliographical value. The succeeding issue of September is largely occupied with a general estimate of Rubens's works in the Hermitage at St. Petersburg, by Émile Michel, with a few specimens at second-hand.

Numerous pictorial souvenirs of Fritz Reuter accompany an article in the current issue of *Vom Fels zum Meer* (F. W. Christern), by Oscar Schwebel, on the birthplace of the great humorist—Stavenhagen in Mecklenburg-Schwerin. The conductor who shouts out the name of the station gives it, we are told, a pronunciation midway between Stammhagen and Stappnhagen.

A good copy of Sully's portrait of Andrew Jackson is frontispiece to the October number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History and Biography*. It is published in connection with the closing sketch, by Dr. Stillé, of "The Life and Services of Joel R. Poinsett," which is a useful contribution to the history of Nullification.

Another advance has been made in the leisurely 'Complete Index to *Littell's Living Age*,' the fourteenth part completing the educational section, and beginning that of Fiction (Philadelphia: Edward Roth, No. 1135 Pine Street).

The third number of the publications of the University of Pennsylvania, in the Department of Political Economy and Public Law, is a paper upon ground-rents in Philadelphia, by Edward P. Allinson and Boies Penrose of the bar of that city. It is a well-known fact that there are in Philadelphia more dwelling-houses than voters, so that, as a rule, every family has its own separate abode. The authors of this paper contend, with much force, that the practice of selling land subject to ground-rents has promoted subdivision and facilitated the acquisition of homes by the poorer classes. For the explanation of this tendency we must refer those interested to the monograph itself, which is extremely concise, and contains, withal, an excellent presentation of the legal aspects of these estates. They seem to be peculiar to the State of Pennsylvania.

—The ninth volume in the imposing series of the 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.' (Washington), opens with the remainder of the long title *Medicine*, and also disposes bodily of the letter N. Like its predecessors, it is a marvel of fulness and accuracy: we have not, in a cursory examination, found even a typographical error, though error is almost courted by the repetition of titles in full, under author and subject respectively. Extraordinary attention is given to biographical data—birth and death of an author, his obituary notice, his portrait, etc. Places form an important feature of the classification: 40 pages are given up to New York State and city, for example. Nostrums, like Norris's Drops, are entered along with the drugs in regular use, *e. g.*, Morphine and Mercury, which fill 7 and 22 pages respectively. Kindred sciences, like Meteorology and Natural History, make a good showing, the former in 10 pages. The Microscope has 16; Museums 8; Monsters, 36. The parts of the body most favored in this volume are above all the Nerves (upwards of 140 pp.), the Muscles (33 pp.), the Nose (35 pp.), the Neck (23 pp.), the Mouth (11 pp.), and the Membranes (10 pp.). The Mind gets 10. Meningitis heads the diseases with 20 pages, Mumps counting but 4, and Melancholia 4. The swallowing of needles and pins requires 2 pages, in very fine print, of references to periodicals mostly. To complete our statistical view, we may note that the Müllers among the authors occupy 12 pages, the Meyers 7.

—The Index Catalogue is a veritable polyglot. We single out as curiosities original Japanese medical works, like 'Tokuhon wo Jinku Ho,' or 'Tokuhon's Nineteen Principal Diseases and their Treatment'; and Japanese translations from the German, such as, 'Netsu Shinrou,' or 'The New Doctrine of Fever.' Odd titles abound. Under Memphis occurs this: 'Section of a Human Stomach, having been used twelve years in trying to digest Wolf River third-best water, showing cause of dyspepsia.' Under Mind-Cure this, proving the antiquity of it: 'Narrative of the late extraordinary cure wrought in an instant upon Mrs. Eliz. Savage (lame from her birth), without the using of any natural means, etc., with an appendix, attempting to prove that miracles are not ceas'd' (London, 1694). Somewhat earlier is G. A. Mercklin's tractate on transfusion of the blood, "qua hæc quæ sit e bruto in brutum, . . . illa quæ e bruto in hominem, . . . et ista quæ ex homine in hominem," etc. (Nuremberg, 1679). Nicolo Monardes wrote 'Delle cose

DIGITIZED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

che vengono portate dall' Indie occidentali pertinenti all' uso della medicina,' etc. (Venice, 1575), which was Englished in London by John Frampton in 1596 as 'Joyfull Newes out of the New-found Worlde,' etc. Marchmont Needham's 'Medela Medicinæ' (1665) he defines as "a plea for the free profession and a renovation of the art of physik, . . . tending to the rescue of mankind from the tyranny of diseases, and of physicians themselves from the pedantism of old authors and present dictators." Under Midwifery, one may see what a contest has raged over the proper sex for this profession. Daniel Neal published (1722) a 'Narrative of the Method and Success of Inoculating the Smallpox in New England, by Mr. Benj. Colman,' "with a reply to the objections made against it from principles of conscience in a letter from a minister at Boston." Nostradamus is represented by his 'Zwey Bücher,' "erstlich in frantzösischer Sprach von ihme beschriben: Nun, aber, unserem Vatterland zü Gütem, in das gemain Teutsch auff das trewlichst verdolmetscht" (Augsburg, 1573). But we must not wander further in these pleasant pastures.

—The poets Drayton, Drummond of Hawthornden, Dryden, and Dunbar, with many lesser luminaries, fall to the sixteenth volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan & Co.); and the notice of Dryden not only is the longest and most significant of any between the two covers, but demonstrates again that the editor's skill in this sort of composition is unsurpassed by that of his colaborers. Mr. Leslie Stephen regards Mr. Lowell's as perhaps the best modern judgment of Dryden. Mr. Stephen also writes the compact account of Miss Edgeworth, not omitting the painful "attempts to increase her growth by mechanical devices, including hanging by the neck." There is a good deal of information about Martin Droeshout and his engravings, of which his Shakspere bust of 1623 is the most famous. Thomas Drummond, the inventor of the light which bears his name, and afterwards the most beneficent ruler that Ireland had ever had, is fitly commemorated, and is, indeed, a name to be remembered at this time. The contrast of his success with Forster's failure, while neither wholly one of temperament nor wholly of training—the scientific spirit versus the reformatory—is deserving of study. Besides British soldiers who had a hostile hand in our Revolutionary struggle and in the war of 1812, such as abound in this Dictionary, there is a rather large proportion of more cheerful international entries. We may instance Samuel Eaton, colleague of the Rev. John Davenport in New Haven, and his brother Theophilus, the first Governor of the Colony; Henry Dunster, President of Harvard, and his scaly predecessor, Nathaniel Eaton, President pre-designate. England gave to us Dr. John W. Draper, and we gave to England Joseph Chessborough Dyer, who, a mechanical genius himself, helped many American inventions to an introduction abroad, notably Fulton's steamboat, and who remembered the land of his nativity when he took a share in founding the *North American Review*. Dyer's name, by the way, is omitted from Drake's 'Dictionary of American Biography' and from the new Appletons' 'Cyclopædia of American Biography.' He was a native of Stonington, Conn., and his father is said to have been "Capt. Nathaniel Dyer of the Rhode Island Navy." Might not Mary Dyer, the Quakeress, hanged as such on Boston Common in 1660, have been properly included in Mr. Stephen's Dictionary?

—The free and easy methods of the German universities in the matter of attendance upon lectures have been so highly commended by not a few American educators, and the seminary system has been so loudly hailed as the highest development and crowning glory of the best possible system of instruction, that it may be worth while to look for a moment on the reverse of the medal as presented in the following extract from the Berlin *Politische Nachrichten:*

"Many as are the advantages of the present system of teaching in our universities, it has this disadvantage, that the students who, as is well known, are not required to attend regularly the lectures for which they are registered, but for which they nevertheless receive their certificate of attendance, are beguiled into turning their backs upon the lecture-rooms, especially in their first semesters; the consequence is, that later, in order to pass the examinations, they are forced to obtain in a comparatively short time the requisite knowledge of their subjects, to the detriment of their general culture and of their health. Another result is, that the knowledge thus acquired is frequently no more than is absolutely indispensable. In order to bring about a closer personal intercourse between students and teachers, and thus lead to a more regular attendance upon lectures, the so-called seminaries, sometimes called *Privatissima*, *Uebungen*, etc., were brought into existence in our universities. In these, more use is made of the scholastic methods, and these institutions have been very successful. Even they, however, suffer from the fact that the professor has no means, other than moral suasion, at his command to urge on to greater diligence those students who have shown themselves negligent during the semester. We have, therefore, cause to rejoice that the Minister of Education has, by a recent statute, conferred upon the Director of the Historical Seminary in Berlin University powers hitherto not possessed. By this statute the members of the seminary are required to attend regularly the exercises of the seminary, must not absent themselves without giving previous notice of the reason for absence, and must display all required diligence in their studies. For violation of this statute, or for other valid reasons, the Director may exclude any student. Every student, therefore, who enters the seminary, under these regulations, has his attention called at the opening of the semester to the consequences of any lack of diligence on his part; and nothing less than regular attendance will secure for him at the close of the semester the needful certificate of his participation in the work. Thus there is brought to bear upon the student a pressure which must work only to his advantage, and it is much to be desired that the same regulations might be extended to the seminaries in other branches of knowledge."

Can it be that we have here the entering wedge of the marking system and compulsory attendance, which, under the guidance of our German friends, we had begun to look upon as twin relics of barbarism in our American universities?

—Two congresses have just met at Venice, and have received the usual hospitality of that city—illuminations, fireworks, serenades on the Grand Canal, receptions by the authorities in the Ducal Palace, a dinner at the Lido, a trip to Murano and Torcello, and another up the Brenta to Padua. The Meteorological Congress, under the Presidency of Padre Denza, the well-known seismologist and Director of the Observatory at Moncalieri, was a small body of serious scientific men and did some good work. The International Literary Congress, which never boasted of a very eminent membership, seems to have fallen entirely into the hands of second and third-rate writers, especially of those who manage the International Literary Association of Paris. On this occasion M. Louis Ratisbonne was the president, and M. Louis Ulbach the chief manager. The other important members were all French, Italian, Spanish, and Belgian, except one Englishman, Mr. Clifford Millage, of whose literary status we must confess to having no exact information. Germany, Austria, and other nations seem this year to have taken no active part in the proceedings. The protection of literary property, which is now theoretically the main object of this Congress, took up very little of the time and attention of the members, and the discussion on the American International Copyright Law, which had been greatly advertised in advance, amounted only to a brief résumé of the Chace Bill, and an anodyne resolution (passed without debate) recommending the United States to accept the international arrangement formulated a few years ago at Berne. The discussion on the reciprocal rights and duties of authors and publishers was somewhat more lively, especially when the Dutch were attacked for having permitted the performance of the opera "Otello" without payment to Verdi or the publisher Ricordi. A Dutch delegate defended his countrymen on the ground that there existed in Holland but one wandering opera company, which gave representations in turn at Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and The Hague, and could not exist if compelled to pay heavily for new operas; and he humorously cited parallel examples from the literary and musical history of Belgium and France. This called out indignant protests. As hosts, the Italians were expected to amuse the Congress, and Vittorio Malamani, the author of that excellent book, the 'History of Venice in its Private Life,' read the opening paper of the session, on "Venice in French Art and Literature"; while the learned Professor De Leva of Padua delivered a discourse on the Diarist Marino Sanuto and the proper place of chronicles in history. Both these papers will be published —the former in the *Nuova Antologia*.

—The missionaries of Adana, in Cilicia, have been spending the heated term in Comana Aurea, in Cappadocia, once the seat of the worship of the goddess Ma, celebrated throughout the Hellenistic period for its wealth and splendor. Miss Laura Tucker, in a private letter, says:

"For our own curiosity we have been pursuing some original investigations by way of opening up one of the smooth, oval, artificial mounds that crown all the *high places* in this vicinity. We chose the largest mound, in sight from the Protestant chapel, and two weeks ago set some men to digging. They began at the top of the mound, and, after digging several days, got tired, and began on the south side. To-day our efforts were rewarded by an entrance into a prettily built stone tomb, containing one main room, ten feet long, eight feet wide, and eight feet high, with a long entrance-hall. We got into the building from the top. The stones are all nicely carved and put together carefully. The floor was once paved with foot-square smoothed limestones, but the place seems to have been entered and rifled, perhaps centuries ago, and the pavement partly torn up. The roof of the little structure is arch-shaped, and the door of the inner room was shut by a large stone, cut to fit the entrance. It is curious to notice that the entrance of the mausoleum, and that to this second underground tomb, is toward the west. You know that all *these people*, living here now, speak of sunrise as the 'birth of the sun.' Can it be that the ancients who dwelt here associated birth and religion with the sun and sunrise, while they in some way connected death with sunset? . . . Those Germans and Austrians who were in Marash just before you, have made excavations in Zingirli and discovered important Hittite ruins, among them a colossal statue of Sardanapalus, the old Assyrian."

NARRATIVE AND CRITICAL HISTORY OF AMERICA.

The United States of North America. Part II. [Narrative and Critical History of America. Vol. viii.] Edited by Justin Winsor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. Pp. viii, 610.

THE present volume very well exemplifies the distinctive advantages of the coöperative me-

LICENSED TO GNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

thod in historical work, and at the same time some of its essential limitations. Perhaps in no previous volume has there been a more obvious appropriateness in the assignment of subjects to writers. As instances may be mentioned the chapter on "The Constitution of the United States and its History," by Mr. George Ticknor Curtis; that on "The History of Political Parties," by Prof. Alexander Johnston; that on "The Peace Negotiations of 1782-1783," by Mr. John Jay; and that on "The Diplomacy of the United States," by President James B. Angell. Of an importance only secondary to these, however, are the other chapters of the volume, by Mr. Edward J. Lowell, Dr. George E. Ellis, Prof. James Russell Soley, Dr. Edward Channing, and the editor, Mr. Winsor, respectively. The volume, as a whole, supplies a history of the United States to 1850, giving separate consideration, not only to its diplomatic and territorial aspects, but also to its political and constitutional, and its military and naval phases as well.

It is, nevertheless, in the portion bearing upon the diplomatic aspects of the history that the present volume possesses the greatest interest, as comprised in the contributions of Messrs. Lowell, Jay, Ellis, Angell, Channing, and the editor. Mr. Lowell's chapter, by far the longest in the book, follows the thread of our "Relations with Europe," from 1775 to 1782. It deserves a careful reading, not merely from the intrinsic interest of its subject, but from the extreme care with which the writer has traced it, often in the most remote and least accessible quarters. Mr. Lowell's researches in connection with one phase of the subject, the Hessians, were embodied in his monograph published in 1884, but have here been supplemented by applying a similarly exhaustive scale of investigation to the subject at large. No less informing than his chapter is Mr. Lowell's "Critical Essay," in which are indicated some of the European depositories of the original archives to be consulted. Following this essay, the editor has supplied a very serviceable "List of Treaties, Conventions, and Declarations," 1674-1784, bearing upon the American Revolution and the Armed Neutrality.

Mr. Jay's chapter, on "The Peace Negotiations of 1782–1783," continues the narrative from where Mr. Lowell leaves it. It must be regarded as of exceptional interest and importance, even in view of the fact that Mr. Jay has so recently traversed substantially the same ground in his address before the New York Historical Society in 1883, and his paper before the American Historical Association at Boston, in 1887. The reason for this is of course to be found in the gradual bringing to light of the materials necessary to a proper understanding of the period referred to. Four sources of information in particular, as elsewhere pointed out by Mr. Jay, are now within reach of the historical student. Of these, two are in print, Fitzmaurice's 'Life of Shelburne,' and the Circourt documents. The other two are the newly acquired Franklin papers at Washington, and the Stevens Collection of papers from the London and Paris archives, which have as yet but partially been placed before the public in print. Mr. Jay's chapter is an exhaustive marshalling of the occurrences lying between the dates of February 22, 1782, and September 3, 1783. Bearing in mind the part played in these transactions by his distinguished grandfather, the reader must admit that Mr. Jay has been singularly successful in avoiding the point of view of the advocate. The result of a reëxamination of the subject in the light of the new evidence is, however, to place in much higher estimation the services of the John Jay of 1782. The most strenuous aim of the present chapter is apparently to establish a necessary connection between the Vaughan mission to Shelburne in September, 1782, and the action almost immediately taken by the Shelburne Administration. Could this connection be established (and it must be said that the evidence is forcibly presented), the result is necessarily to connect with Jay's name the almost decisive act of the series of negotiations. This country was, however, fortunate in all three of its representatives in France, and to no one of them was the credit wholly due of making an honorable peace possible. "Had the affair been managed by men of ordinary ability" [only] says Mr. John Fiske, "the greatest results of the Revolutionary war would probably have been lost; the new republic would have been cooped up between the Atlantic and the Alleghanies; our westward expansion would have been impossible without further warfare; and the formation of our Federal union would doubtless have been effectively hindered or prevented."

It is interesting to compare with these great services of Jay, in which a successful issue crowned the negotiations, those later efforts of his, in 1794, which were quite as conspicuous for their failure to secure ratification. Jay's treaty with England, the story of which falls within the period of Mr. Angell's chapter, is examined by him at some length. His position, briefly stated, is that, while much of the criticism of the treaty was well founded, the "justification of the treaty is found in the fact that it saved the States from a war with Great Britain, for which they were entirely unprepared, and gave them years of peace, which in their weakness they so much needed. Looking back from our present point of view, we must admit that the completion of the negotiation was wise and fortunate." Mr. Angell's chapter, the scope of which is "The Diplomacy of the United States," from 1789 to 1850, nowhere involves the reëxamination of the subject in the light of new evidence to the degree which is true of the earlier chapters. Much of the ground, indeed, is already familiar, in the pages of Lyman, Trescot, Wharton, and others. Nevertheless, one of the desiderata in American political literature is a diplomatic history of the country in connected form from the beginning.

The consideration of the diplomatic bearings of the War of 1812 and other wars must be sought for in Mr. Angell's chapter on the diplomacy, rather than in Prof. Soley's on "The Wars of the United States," since the latter deals strictly, and very properly, with an exposition of these wars from the point of view of military engineering and strategy. Here, as in the case of Gen. Cullom's chapter in the previous volume, the advantage of having a technical subject treated by a technical authority is decidedly manifest. Other portions of the volume, which have a more or less close relation with the diplomatic aspect of the history, include not merely Mr. Winsor's "editorial notes" at the end of Mr. Jay's chapter on "The Fisheries," "Maps," etc., and Dr. Ellis's (appended to the same chapter) on "The Loyalists and their Fortunes," but also the very valuable "appendix" (of 36 pages of fine print), on the "Territorial Acquisitions and Divisions." In this skilful treatment of the "political geography" of the period, the editor has had the very serviceable coöperation of Dr. Edward Channing. The text is elucidated, not only with facsimiles of contemporary maps, but also with sketch-maps—like that at page 530—which are extraordinarily effective in representing the situation graphically to the eye. Considerable space is, of course, devoted to the successive changes of boundary within the limits of what was at first known as the Territory Northwest of the River Ohio. In this connection, reference might properly have been made to Mr. R. G. Thwaites's recent paper on "The Boundaries of Wisconsin" (in volume xi of the 'Collections' of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin), in which, by a series of eleven sketch-maps, he traces the successive changes from 1784 to 1848.

There is a question which has been widely canvassed—at times within the pages of this journal—namely, whether the Louisiana purchase extended beyond the Rocky Mountains. It is here very justly characterized as a "dispute without much ground on the affirmative side"; references being given, however, to the arguments in favor of the two views respectively. A similarly critical treatment is given to the conflicting claims as to the drafting of the Ordinance of 1787. There is still another question of boundaries, treated not in this appendix, but in one of Mr. Winsor's "editorial notes," to which a curious interest attaches. This is the northeastern boundary question, which formed the subject of successive negotiations with Great Britain, but was finally settled by the Webster-Ashburton treaty of 1842. It was during the consideration of this treaty by the Senate that something like a panic was created by an innocent little "red-line map" which Mr. Sparks had found in the French archives the year before. The construction then placed upon it is seen to be an amusing one, in view of the subsequent discovery of other maps with the "red line," one of which, that of Palairet, Mr. Winsor here reproduces. This very interesting episode in diplomatic history Mr. Winsor has treated more in detail in a communication to the Massachusetts Historical Society in 1887.

If unusual prominence appears to be given in this volume to the diplomatic and external phase of the country's development, and less to the political and internal, this is perhaps due to the fact that the latter is the more patent and familiar aspect of the two, rather than to any lack of skill in the treatment of the political history. Prof. Johnston's chapter on "The History of Political Parties" very well covers the ground, while Mr. Winsor's bibliographical appendix to it, of more than sixty pages, is of extraordinary value for reference. Among the other extended bibliographical notes in this volume may be mentioned one on "The Portraits of Franklin," and a much longer one on "The Portraits of Washington," which is almost encyclopædic in its character. Indeed, the minute acquaintance with details which underlies the editing of the work as a whole is well illustrated on page 75, where an editorial note, after citing various authorities on the military aspect of the Hessian aid to the British arms in this country, informs us also that the "Hessian fly," commonly supposed to have been brought here at that time, was not, but was "probably brought over by the German immigrants in Pennsylvania. Cf. *Science*, April 11, 1884, p. 432."

We began by stating that the present volume is an exemplification, not only of the excellences, but of the limitations of the method of historical composition for which it stands. Those limitations, indeed, are almost inseparably connected with its encyclopædic character, just touched upon, which, while very perfectly fitted to exhibit the nature and bearings of separate topics, does not lend itself with equal facility to the interpretation of certain great underlying currents of history. Such, in the period under consideration, is the course of

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

American history as affected by the slavery conflict. The subject of slavery has scarcely more than twenty pages assigned it in this whole volume; and yet, if the first half of the nineteenth century had any significance, it is surely this, that it witnessed the steady and unceasing growth, in the two sections, of two movements and tendencies which were not merely antagonistic, but were in their very nature irreconcilable. Nor is it less significant that the political leaders of the two sections were for the most part oblivious of this fact, and, when the jarring of factions in repeated instances seemed to threaten the existence of the Union itself, were apparently ready to believe in the sovereign efficacy of the latest "compromise." We were then, to quote from Prof. Lowell some trenchant sentences written in 1858, "very fond of this glue of compromise. Like so many quack cements, it is advertised to make the mended parts of the vessel stronger than those which have never been broken, but, like them, it will not stand hot water." With the close of the period covered by this history, the slavery question was still an unsolved problem. Another quarter of a century was to witness its violent but effectual solution.

That the 'Narrative and Critical History' does not accomplish, in instances such as we have cited, what might be desired, is no defect, considering it as an individual work. It is merely one of the inevitable limitations of this type of historical compilation—a type which has given us, in the instance under consideration, a work of monumental importance and value.

THE MYSTERY OF THE DIFFERENTIAL CALCULUS.

Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus. By Simon Newcomb, Professor of Mathematics in the Johns Hopkins University. Henry Holt & Co. 8vo, pp. ix, 307.

To the large majority of persons of liberal education—of those who have deserved as well as received their college diplomas—the Differential and Integral Calculus is a *terra incognita.* Almost everybody of ordinary intelligence has some vague notion that geometry has to do with triangles and squares and circles and the shapes and sizes of things generally. Even "business colleges" teach enough algebra in a disguised form to enable their pupils to understand that rules which seem difficult and obscure when stated in words, become clear and practical when turned into formulæ, and they readily see (or think they see) that the same system might be extended to other things besides "principal" and "interest" and "present worth." Every graduate of a college knows that trigonometry treats of the measurement of triangles; and though many of them have never studied analytic geometry, yet they at least know that it is a method of treating geometrical questions in which algebra is extensively applied. But most undergraduates and graduates have exhausted their knowledge of the Differential and Integral Calculus when they have said that it is the name of a high branch of mathematics, that few study it, and that they believe it is "awfully hard."

This belief in the difficulty of the Calculus has become traditional. The tradition is handed down from class to class, and many things conspire to keep it alive. In the first place, many graduates who studied the Calculus while in college, and even acquired considerable facility in the use of its formulæ, yet confess that they never understood it, and regard the time spent in the study as lost. In the next place, the text-books themselves tend to foster this belief, although trying in various ways to show that it is groundless. De Morgan, in his 'Elementary Illustrations of the Differential and Integral Calculus,' says on the first page: "It is matter of common observation that any one who commences this study, even with the best elementary works, finds himself in the dark as to the real meaning of the processes which he learns until, at a certain stage of his progress, depending upon his capacity, some accidental combination of his own ideas throws light upon the subject." Mathematics is generally supposed to be *par excellence* the science of certainty. To the uninitiated it must seem very queer that success in the highest branch of that science should depend "upon some accidental combination of his own ideas" on the part of the learner, and that, too, a combination which may never occur. Mr. Todhunter, whose 'Treatise on the Differential Calculus' is, perhaps, more extensively used in England than any other text-book of the science, after remarking (p. 11) on the discouragement which the beginner often finds coming over him, and saying that "he is apt to imagine as a reason for it that he has not correctly understood the elementary principles of the subject," endeavors to encourage him with the assurance "that the difficulty of which he complains is probably owing much more to the nature of the subject than to his own want of comprehension." His advice as to the course the beginner should pursue may be summed up in the directions to leave everything to his teacher and "to labor and to wait." Professor Newcomb (p. 23) says: "In beginning the Calculus, conceptions are presented to the student which seem beyond his grasp, and methods which seem to lack rigor."

The result of all this is that the Calculus has become a sort of intellectual bugbear. The majority of undergraduates give it a wide berth. The minority who study it are made up, first, of those who suppose that it will be useful or indispensable in their future professional career as teachers, engineers, astronomers, etc.; secondly, of those whose natural gifts incline them strongly to the pursuit of every branch of mathematics; and, lastly, of those who, from a kind of intellectual pride, do not like to leave college confessing utter ignorance of any branch of learning which they were afforded the opportunity of pursuing. The number of those who study the Calculus is, however, rapidly increasing, and for their encouragement we can say that to those who persevere, the "accidental combination of ideas" almost invariably comes. When once they have got their faculties in the right train, they find themselves in possession of an instrument which seems to solve problems by a sort of magic, and to enable one to reach and handle the ultimate elements of things.

The only real difficulties of the Calculus are encountered at its very outset. As Professor Newcomb says in his preface: "The most difficult question which arises in treating the subject, is how the first principles should be presented to the mind of the beginner." Hence every new text-book that appears is at once more or less a matter of curiosity to those who have studied and are engaged in using or teaching the science. It might naturally seem impossible to convey to the general reader who has never studied the subject at all, an idea of what these difficulties are. We do not think this is so, but believe the matter can be rendered intelligible, and to a certain extent interesting, to any person of ordinary intelligence. Almost every one of adult age knows that when anything falls from a height, it goes faster and faster until it reaches the ground. There are, however, persons who are not aware of this fact. One of the fools who have sought notoriety by jumping from the Brooklyn Bridge, having heard that a body would fall sixteen feet in a second, inferred that, as the bridge is 144 feet high, it would take him nine seconds to reach the water. Of course, it took him just three seconds to accomplish the journey, and during the third second he fell eighty feet instead of sixteen. This increase in speed is, as the mathematicians say, continuous; that is, no matter how short an interval of time we take, be it but the thousandth or the millionth part of a second, the body is, in ordinary language, falling faster at the end of the interval than it was at the beginning. Although the motion of the body follows a certain mathematical law, which it is not necessary to state here, yet it is a law of continuous change. Take any two successive intervals of time, however short, and during the second interval it will fall further than it did during the first; and yet, almost everybody, educated or uneducated, has a notion that, at each particular instant, there is, in regard to the body's motion, something definite and susceptible of calculation. The morning after the feat of the bridge-jumper, the most ignorant persons might be heard saying they should like to know just how fast he was going when he struck the water. It is with such questions as this that the Calculus deals.

Again, take the case of curved lines. A curve changes its direction continuously. For no conceivable length is it anywhere straight. Its essence is to be curved. And yet, take any point in the curve, and of all the infinity of straight lines which can be drawn through the point there is one, and only one, the tangent, which will not cut the curve. Those acquainted with the elements of geometry know how to draw that line at any point in the circumference of a circle. But the Calculus takes up the problem in all its generalty, and shows how by one method that one line can be drawn through any given point of any curve which the mathematician can construct according to any fixed rule. Speaking generally, the Calculus seizes upon any given point in any thing or any process that is continually varying, fluctuating, changing, and tells us all about it at that particular instant.

So far as its methods of calculation are concerned, they are in most cases quite simple. If a problem is difficult, the difficulty generally consists in getting it into such shape that the processes of the Calculus can be applied. The real difficulty of the Calculus is to justify the methods by which it attains its results. Mr. Todhunter, in the extract we have quoted above, says the student "is apt to imagine that he has not correctly understood the elementary principles," and Professor Newcomb, that the "conceptions seem to be beyond his grasp." We do not think either of the great mathematicians has described precisely the state of the beginner's mind. What vexes and perplexes him is that he seems to himself to comprehend very clearly what he is doing, and to be doing what all his previous training had taught him he must not do. It all seems very easy, very simple, and very absurd. He is told to "take the limit" of one side of his equation by striking out a quantity because it "is approaching zero," while on the other side the same quantity must be carefully preserved because it is one of the terms of a ratio which is the very essence of the whole process. Neither does it help him much to be told that the value of a quantity presented in the form of a fraction does not de-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pend upon the size of the numerator and denominator. He knows very well that a "fraction with a million for numerator and a hundred for denominator equals ten thousand"; so also does a fraction with a hundredth for numerator and a millionth for denominator; so does a fraction with a millionth for numerator and a ten-thousand-millionth for denominator. But what is the value of a fraction with a hundredth or a thousandth or anything else for a numerator, and zero, that is nothing at all, for a denominator? What is the ratio of something to nothing? Again, when he is told that "the differential of a quantity is its infinitesimal increment—that is, its increment considered in the act of approaching zero as its limit, or of becoming smaller than any quantity we can name," how can he help asking, Whereabouts "in the act of approaching zero' am I to take it?

But suppose that, after much study of his text-book on the part of the pupil, after much pondering and puzzling, and after much disquisition and explanation on the part of his teacher, he sees, or thinks he sees, how a quantity may be something or nothing pretty much as you like, and he finds that, however queer it may all seem, he does get accurate results—not approximate and very nearly correct, but mathematically exact; he finds also that he has only just entered upon the consideration of the infinitely small. He is now called upon to "take the limit" of quantities in comparison with which the infinitesimals he tried so hard to comprehend are infinitely great. These infinitesimals of the second order are in turn succeeded by others of the third and fourth and fifth orders, until he is lost in the infinitely infinitesimal. But when he finds that he is gradually acquiring the power to answer quickly and easily questions which when first proposed seem too complicated to be answered at all; that he easily solves problems of the greatest importance in mechanics, in engineering, in astronomy; above all, when he finds that results which he had before obtained in particular cases by long and toilsome processes, he now obtains quickly by one all-embracing method, perhaps he will suspect that all this talk about the infinite is not merely a jargon of words. We advise him to turn his suspicion into a theorem, and to believe that, whether he can explain the philosophy of the thing in a manner satisfactory to himself and to others or not, he is all the while dealing with things as real and as large as the entries in the banker's ledger or the engineer's note-book.

Professor Newcomb evidently regards the difficulties that oppose themselves to a simple, direct, and easily intelligible exposition of the principles of the Calculus as insuperable. In his preface he tells us: "It is now well understood that the method of limits forms the only rigorous basis for the infinitesimal Calculus, and that infinitesimals can be used with logical rigor only when based on this method—that is, when considered as quantities approaching zero as their limit. When thus defined, no logical difficulty arises in their use; they flow naturally from the conception of limits." Nevertheless he adds: "But it is not to be expected that a beginner will fully grasp their principles until he has become familiar with the mechanical processes of differentiation and with the application of the Calculus to special problems." Accordingly, he says: "It may therefore be found best to begin with a single careful reading of this chapter [the second, in which the fundamental principles are explained], and afterwards to use it for reference as the student finds occasion to apply the principles laid down in it." At the beginning of this chapter he says: "The *method of limits* is an indirect method of arriving at the value of certain quantities which do not admit of direct determination."

There is involved in these statements, not a question of science merely, but also a question of fact. Does the method of limits, as explained in the Calculus, when presented to the beginner, seem either natural or logically rigorous? We believe, on the contrary, that a large portion, perhaps a majority even, of those who are skilled in the use of the Calculus—nay, even of those who write books about it—are conscious that there is something about it which they do not quite understand, that there is still room for explanation. Add to this that many great mathematicians hold that "the quantities approaching zero as their limit" and the "infinitely small quantities" or "infinitesimals" are but different names for the same things. Further, we believe that the quantities treated in the Calculus *do* "admit of direct determination," and that its principles may be so presented as to avoid the seeming absurdities and contradictions in which it is involved. For this, however, we must all wait.

Turning now to the consideration of Professor Newcomb's work as a text-book, designed to teach the present state of the science, we must regard it as in every way worthy of his great reputation as a mathematician. He says in his preface that it is "intended to contain about as much of the Calculus as an undergraduate student, either in arts or science, can be expected to master during his regular course." It is not a large book and is not crowded, and does not treat anything in an obscure or superficial manner. Fully equipped with what it contains, the student can attempt with confidence the perusal of the most advanced works either in English or in any foreign language with which he is acquainted. The only point in Professor Newcomb's treatment of the science in regard to the advisability of which we should be inclined to express a doubt, is the total postponement of everything concerning the Integral Calculus until he has finished the treatment of the Differential. But that is a matter which we have left ourselves no room to discuss.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Leonard A. Jones's 'Treatise on the Law of Liens, Common Law, Statutory, Equitable, and Maritime,' in two volumes (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is, if we mistake not, the first thorough and full work on this subject which has ever appeared. We have now the list of seven volumes which this learned and conscientious author has published, upon Mortgages of Real Property, Railroad Mortgages, Chattel Mortgages, Pledges, and Liens, which make a complete series on the general subject of what he calls "Property Securities." Mr. Jones has written "for the practising lawyer rather than the student," and has "sought to examine the subjects in such detail as to enable [him] to state and discuss all the difficult and doubtful questions that have arisen and been passed upon by the courts." He has dealt with all classes of liens—common law, equitable, maritime, and statutory liens—has considered them with reference to the different classes of persons who have a right to them, and has pointed out the leading statutory changes in the general doctrines of the law. His book embodies a vast amount of labor, and will be of the greatest usefulness to the profession.

Two or three points have occurred to us for criticism. In considering the old doctrine that there was no lien, at common law, where there was an agreement for a fixed price, the author has not observed what is apparently the true explanation of this, given by Professor Ames in the *Harvard Law Review*, vol. ii. p. 61, namely, that by the old law the lien was allowed to a man who had no right of action; the man who had agreed for a fixed price did have an action, while at a certain period he who had not so agreed had none. In regard to the so-called lien of the unpaid seller of goods, the author does not bring out plainly enough the anomalous state of the English law, of which Blackburn and Markby speak so strongly, and the difference between the English cases and our own. In § 802 he might well condemn some remarks which he quotes, and which gain undue value from his leaving them uncondemned; and, finally, his exposition of the doctrine of stoppage in transitu seems often to favor a common error that this right exists only where the seller had a lien. It is apparent, *e. g.*, in § 862, that the author recognizes that a seller who never had a lien may yet acquire one by stopping the goods in transitu; but his language in other places, like that of the courts, is unguarded upon this point. Notwithstanding these small deductions, this treatise appears to be one of the best of our practical hand-books of law, an honest and excellent piece of work.

Mr. F. J. Stimson's first supplement to his 'American Statute Law' (Boston: Chas. C. Soule) draws attention again to that very important book in which the provisions of the constitutional and statute law of the whole country are summarized. The supplement brings the work down to January 1, 1888. The ingenuity and pains which the author has shown in condensing and arranging his work, in providing full tables and indexes, and in compressing the results of two years of legislation into one hundred octavo pages, are worthy of great praise. The student of comparative legislation, as well as the practising lawyer, will find these labors of Mr. Stimson of great help to him. In the last two years, as we are told by the author, the principal changes have been in legislation "relating to marriage, divorce, aliens, married women's property and other rights, and mechanics' liens. In marriage and divorce the tendency has been conservative, . . . but in the other three subjects it has been notably radical, many Western States, in particular, having enacted alien laws entirely prohibiting the ownership by aliens of real estate." It seems odd to speak of this return to the old doctrine about aliens as "radical" legislation. Thirty or forty years ago this doctrine would have been conservatism.

Mr. Samuel Merrill's 'Newspaper Libel; A Handbook for the Press' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) is not precisely a law book—its title shows that; but it is a sort of a law book. The author is described on the title-page as being "of the Boston *Daily Globe*, a Member of the Bar of Massachusetts and of New York"; and in his preface, "while disclaiming any intention of writing a text-book for the use of the bar," and remarking that he is no longer an active member of it, he yet intimates that he is discharging the debt which every lawyer owes to his profession. The legal part of the book appears to be done carefully and well; it is well written, and its full statements of many cases of newspaper libel, as illustrating the leading legal doctrines of the subject, make it a useful and very readable volume for all who publish what they or others write.

Dr. Bourinot's 'Manual of the Constitutional History of Canada from the Earliest Period to

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the Year 1888' (Montreal: Dawson Brothers, 1888) is, in a large measure, a revised republication of certain chapters of the author's large book on 'Parliamentary Practice and Procedure in Canada.' The writer is clerk of the House of Commons of Canada. In an appendix he presents the existing fundamental law of the Dominion, *i. e.*, "The British North America Act, 1867," with two supplementary statutes of 1871 and 1875. The body of the work contains an exposition of the details and the working of the present system, with an interesting account of what preceded it. What will prove especially instructive to readers on this side of the border is the last five chapters, containing an account of the disallowance of Provincial Acts by the Governor-General in council; of the distribution of legislative powers between the General Parliament and the local legislatures; and of the judicial decisions on questions of legislative jurisdiction, with the rules and constitutional principles embodied therein. The "Constitution" of the Dominion, like the old charters of our colonies, proceeds from a political superior on the other side of the ocean: it does not originate in the soil and spring from the people themselves who are governed by it; but, like the charters, it is a true "constitution" in our sense of the word, since it lays down a rule for the highest legislatures of the country, a law for the lawgivers, which the courts are bound to enforce. The author informs us that the present work contains in an enlarged and improved form those parts of his larger book which are required for the study of political science at the University of Toronto.

Ecclesiastical History of Newfoundland. By the Very Rev. M. F. Howley, D.D., Prefect Apostolic of St. George's, West Newfoundland. Boston: Doyle & Whittle. 1888.

BESIDES the history of the Catholic Church in Newfoundland, this book contains a considerable portion of the political history of that island, and also an account of the discovery and early history of other parts of North America. The title, therefore, scarcely indicates its scope.

The Catholic Church in Newfoundland has had to contend against two great obstacles—the long-continued opposition of the British Government, and poverty. At the beginning of the last century, priests were forbidden to enter the island, though some did so in spite of the law. And considerably more than a century later, Catholics still labored under vexatious restrictions: they were not allowed to perform their own burial rites, and they had to pay fees to the Episcopal Church, which did them no service in return for their money. All the time, too, the great majority of Newfoundlanders, Catholic as well as Protestant, were poor, as, indeed, they are still. They depend on the fisheries for a livelihood, and cling to the rocky coast, leaving a good country all undeveloped behind them. Their poverty has been perpetuated and intensified by the pernicious supplying or credit system on which the fisheries are conducted—a system which makes a few "fish lords," and burdens and demoralizes the many. As the fisherman is charged at very high rates for his supplies, and credited with only the cash price for his fish, the system looks a good deal like those "private affairs" of ours at present attracting so much public attention. But our "private affairs" some of us know how to deal with, while the Newfoundland affair puzzles everybody who considers it. Some look for a change through confederation with Canada, but, even in advocating confederation, the argument of despair is largely used. Thus an editor in St. Johns once said that what Pipes roared down the chimney to Hatchway might be appropriately said to Newfoundland: "Turn out and be spliced, or lie still and be damned!" However, notwithstanding the poverty of her own adherents, and the long-continued opposition of Government, the Catholic Church prospered, and, after the grant of a local legislature, was able for a while to control it, and to keep great influence in politics always.

Many have been moved to tell the whole story to the world—the book before us is the fifth history of Newfoundland; and yet the story is not an easy one to tell truthfully, the political line of division having been for many years almost coincident with that of religion and race. Now, our author's predecessors were all Protestants. To be sure, no one of them could be called a bigot; and if we admit that they had prejudices, it is only because we believe that all men, including (Archbishop Whately to the contrary notwithstanding) even members of Parliament, are more or less prejudiced. But our author, being a Catholic, has, of course, read the works of his predecessors with "watchful jealousy." The Protestant reader is pleased to see that he makes few specific charges against them, and yet amused to note the generally mistrustful way in which he alludes to them. Moreover, he makes it plain that towards the writings of Washington Irving or Dean Stanley his mental attitude would be the same. The idea that all Protestant authors should be read with caution may be in part an inference from the consciousness of his own bias. At all events, whether conscious of it or not, biased he is. He lashes the British Government for its treatment of Catholics, but Catholic wrongdoing is either passed over in silence, or not adequately stated. He is very wroth with Sir Humphrey Gilbert for threatening to cut off people's ears if they should speak disrespectfully of Queen Elizabeth, but makes no mention of the actual cutting off of the ears of an editor of St. John's (and that, too, in the middle of the nineteenth century) for his criticisms of Catholic politics. He speaks contemptuously of the smallness of the pension allowed by the British Government to the first Catholic Bishop of Newfoundland—O'Donel—for "important services"; but he understates the nature of those services as the disclosure of a threatened "mutiny." What Bishop O'Donel did was to disclose a formidable plot, entered into by soldiers and civilians, to massacre many of the Protestants of St. John's and some of the "outports," while at church one Sunday. Indeed, our author seems to imply that it is really difficult for Catholics to perpetrate wickedness, which comes easy enough to Protestants. He quotes the fifth Bishop (Mullock) to the effect that he was unable to find evidence that any Catholics were implicated in the extermination of the Beothick Indians—both clergymen apparently forgetting that one is very likely not to find what he earnestly hopes he may miss. A man like the Mr. Murphy whom Matthew Arnold has told us about—that champion of "the Protestantism of the Protestant religion" who was afraid that the Catholic clergy had designs on Mrs. Murphy—would probably have been more successful.

Notwithstanding his strong bias, however, our author, we hasten to remark, is not disposed to be censorious towards Protestants, so long as they are not Papist-baiters. It evidently gives him pleasure to be able to state that, in the bad old times of persecution, Protestants were often the first to give priests warning of their danger if an English cruiser were seen near the coast; and he fairly exults over the circumstance that the fourth Bishop (Fleming) was the formidable and successful champion of religious liberty in behalf of the Methodists of Newfoundland. With due allowance for the fact that it was against the pretensions of the Church of England that Bishop Fleming made war on behalf of the Methodists—it being obviously one thing to believe that "Church, as they call it," should be tolerant, and quite another thing to believe that "*the* Church" should be so—we gladly admit that he was as liberal-minded as a "consistent" Catholic can well be.

The same may be said for our author, who is a modest man, as well as a comparatively liberal one. If he does not think that any of his predecessors has made a book which comes up to his standard of what a history should be, neither does he think that he has done so himself. He is conscious of a certain lack of unity in his book, due to his treatment of the early history of Newfoundland in connection with that of other parts of North America, and his confining himself to the affairs of Newfoundland in his treatment of her later history. The idea occurred to him that it might have been better to make two books out of his material than one; and we are ourselves of opinion that, from a literary point of view, it would have been better. He speaks, again, of "compiling" a history of the 'Life and Times of Bishop Mullock,' the present work ending with the death of Bishop Fleming. If he does write such a book, it will, in all probability, be no more a mere compilation than the one before us, which is not made out of other books, but is the result of many years' study and research among original sources of information. That portion which treats in detail of the history of Catholicism in Newfoundland, our author thinks will prove interesting only to Catholic Newfoundlanders. We are of opinion that he here underestimates his own powers of selection and narration. Many of those details have a human interest, and not merely an ecclesiastical or local one. No one could read unmoved the story of the building of the cathedral in St. Johns—one of the most imposing church edifices on this side of the Atlantic. The larger part of the work was actually done gratuitously by the poor. Even the women lent a helping hand, in a very different fashion from that familiar to us at fairs and chicken-suppers: they carried away in their aprons the gravel and clay which had to be removed before laying the foundations. So, too, the narrative of the pastoral visitations of Bishop Fleming makes a pleasing picture. The Bishop went from one settlement to another in a fishing-boat. His fare was fisherman's fare. He ate "fish and vang" (codfish and salt pork boiled together), and drank, presumably, "fisherman's tea" (strong tea liberally sweetened with molasses) At night he had to put up with such accommodations as some poor little fishing village afforded. Everywhere he met with a hearty and affectionate welcome, Protestants sometimes uniting with Catholics to do him honor, and merchants who had some bunting hoisting the Union Jack. In the more remote settlements the visit of a Bishop was a rare event indeed. In some of them they had to get along without a resident clergyman, pious women sometimes conducting simple religious services, and "hedge schoolmasters," or the like, if such learned persons were to be found, performing wedding ceremonies A story is told of one of these, whose custom it was, on such occasions, to recite all the Latin he knew, and that was the *De Profundis*.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The entire work will prove valuable to Catholics who wish to add to their knowledge of their Church, and to Newfoundlanders of all creeds who wish to add to their knowledge of their country; and the first half of it is worthy of attention from students of early North American history. General readers, especially if Protestants, will need to do some skipping; but they will find little in the book to offend, and much to interest them. Many of them, on laying it down, will regret the divisions of Christendom, however necessary they may affirm them to be. The style of the author is generally plain and direct, though there is here and there a little of the "fat of speech." Bishop Mullock is termed "colossal-minded"—an epithet which is commended to the attention of Republican politicians.

The volume is well printed, and neatly bound in green cloth; but it has no index, for which the good table of contents affords at best but a sorry substitute. A good index would at least double the value of the book to a student.

Sancta Sophia and Troitza: A Tourist's Notes on the Oriental Church. By Frederick William Holls, of the New York Bar. New York: Published by the Martin Luther Society. 1888.

The Land of the Nihilist: Russia—Its People, its Palaces, its Politics. A narrative of travel in the Czar's dominions, by William Eleroy Curtis. Belford, Clarke & Co. 1888.

The Russian Peasantry: Their Agrarian Condition, Social Life, and Religion. By Stepniak. Harper & Bros. 1888.

THE unpretending essay of Mr. Holls, read before the Martin Luther Society of New York, describes his visit to the mosque of Aya Sophia at Constantinople and the monastery of Saint Sergius at Troitza near Moscow, with those natural reflections called out by the author's religious tone of mind and the robust Protestantism of his audience. It is easy and not unpleasant reading, containing nothing new, nothing very striking, and nothing particularly objectionable.

It is with reluctance that we take up the book of Mr. Curtis, who has fairly outdone the feats of even French newspaper correspondents. With apparently an interest in his subject and a desire for information, he has succeeded in making at least one error in every important or material statement, and has given to a great number of the atrocious woodcuts with which his book is disfigured, false or misleading titles. And all this he has done, "although he had read every book he could find on the Russian Empire," in order to supply the want of a guide-book, apparently being unaware that the third revised edition of Murray was published in 1876 and can still be procured, and that a new and still better edition has just been issued, to say nothing of 'Studies in Russia,' by Augustus J. C. Hare, of the excellent guide-book by Baedeker published in 1883, and of a French guide besides.

The book of the Nihilist leader who conceals himself under the pseudonym of "Stepniak," deserves much more respect. It is in part new, in part reprinted with some changes from the *Times* and the *Fortnightly Review*. The opening of the columns of the *Times* to the arguments and statements of Nihilist writers is perhaps the greatest conquest brought about by all their bomb-throwing and explosions. It is a book, however, to be read with caution, and in a questioning spirit. Compare the interesting chapters on "Russian Religious Dissent" with the recent articles on the same subject by M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, which are the carefully weighed statements of an honest investigator. Although "Stepniak" is well informed and an acute observer, he is writing an argument to support a cause; and one cannot help feeling that the man who would throw the dynamite bomb of an assassin, would not stick at the lesser crime of making a false citation. Still, viewed simply as the argument of Nihilists, Radicals, Socialists (or Liberals, as they would probably prefer to be called, in order to avoid the prejudice attaching to their original designation) the book affords much food for serious thought. The author no longer endeavors to amuse the reader with the story of the "Revolution," and with the adventures and sufferings of foolish, enthusiastic, half-educated young men and women; but seriously sets himself about the task of explaining what are the problems, as he understands them, in Russian life and government which must some time be solved. Until these be fully understoood, it is too soon to talk about the remedies for evils in the Russian body politic—remedies which it will take long to apply, and which will probably in the end not be of the kind desired by "Stepniak" and his friends.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, L. Illustrated Commentary on the Epistle to the Romans. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Allen, J. H. The Tariff and its Evils. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Bacon, T. S. The Beginnings of Religion: An Essay. London: Rivingtons.
Barrett, F. A Recoiling Vengeance. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Bolton, Sarah K. Some Successful Women. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Brown, W. P. A Sea-Island Romance: A Story of South Carolina after the War. John B. Alden.
Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vol. VI. Dramatic Lyrics; Luria. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Bryant, W. C. Thanatopsis, and Other Favorite Poems. Boston: Ginn & Co. 13 cents.
Chardenal, C. A. First French Course. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
Cheny, Edna D. Louisa May Alcott, the Children's Friend. Boston: L. Prang & Co.
Clouston, W. A. The Book of Noodles: Stories of Simpletons. A. C. Armstrong & Co.
Cochran, W. C. The Students' Law Lexicon. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Conforti, L. Pompei: Scene. Naples: Luigi Pierro.
Davidson, J. T. Sure to Succeed. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Dodd, Anna Bowman. Glorinda: A Story. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Doniol, H. Histoire de la Participation de la France à l'établissement des Etats-Unis d'Amérique: Correspondance diplomatique et Documents. Vols. I., II. Paris: Alphonse Picard.
Ford, P. L. Pamphlets on the Constitution of the United States, published during its discussion by the people, 1787, 1788. With Notes and a Bibliography. Brooklyn.
Galdós, P. The Court of Charles IV.: A Romance of the Escorial. W. S. Gottsberger.
Green, Anna Katherine. Behind Closed Doors. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Groh, D. W. The Tariff in a Nutshell. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Hamilton, A. Memoirs of Count Gramont. Edited, with Notes, by Sir Walter Scott. Portrait and Etchings by L. Boisson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Harrison, J. A. Autrefois: Tales of Old New Orleans and Elsewhere. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Herou-Allen. Kisses of Fate. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Hunt, Leigh. Stories from the Italian Poets. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Hurlbert, W. H. Ireland under Coercion. 2 vols. Edinburg: David Douglas.
Hutchinson, H. G. The Record of a Human Soul. Longmans, Green & Co.
Kirk, H. C. When Age Grows Young: A Romance. C. T. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Kluge, Prof. F. Etymologisches Wörterbuch. Parts 6, 7. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Kroeh, Prof. C. F. Pronunciation of Spanish in Spain and America. Hoboken: C. F. Kroeh. 20 cents.
Lee, J. R. Chromatic Chart and Manual of Parliamentary Law. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 178. July to September, 1888. Boston: Littell & Co.
Mathews, W. Wit and Humor: Their Use and Abuse. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Minto, W. The Mediation of Ralph Hardelot: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Morris, C. Half-Hours with the Best Foreign Authors. 4 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Phyfe, W. H. P. The School Pronouncer. Based on Webster's Dictionary. G. P Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Price, W. Choix de Contes de Daudet. Boston: Charles H. Kilborn.
Report of the United States National Museum, under the direction of the Smithsonian Institution. July, 1885. Washington.

PROTECTIONISM.

The ism which teaches that waste makes wealth. By Prof. Wm. G. Sumner. 16mo, cloth, $1. Postpaid.

HENRY HOLT & Co., 29 W. 23d St., N. Y.

B. WESTERMANN & CO.,

838 Broadway, New York,

Foreign Booksellers and Importers.

School and Text-books, foreign and American. *Teubner's* Greek and Latin Series.

THIEME-PREUSSER, German-Engl. Dictionary. $4.25.

BRUGMANN. Comparative Grammar. $5 net.

Catalogues on application.

The Working of the American Democracy.

An Address delivered before the Fraternity P. B. K. of Harvard University June 28, 1888, by Charles W. Eliot, President of the University. Price, 25 cents, postpaid.

DAMRELL & UPHAM, 283 WASHINGTON ST., BOSTON.

ELLIOTT'S THE UNITED STATES and the Northeastern Fisheries. The most complete and accurate history of the question. Endorsed by Messrs. Bancroft, Lowell, Lodge; Senators Hoar, Morgan, Davis, and other eminent authorities. Sent, postpaid, on receipt of 50 cents. Department of History, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

No. 2 Now Ready. Price 25 Cents.

PARIS ILLUSTRE.

Beautifully Illustrated in Colors.

☞ A new edition of this splendid paper, with ENGLISH TEXT, now appears every week in America simultaneously with the French edition in Paris. This paper has no equal among illustrated weeklies, either in Europe or America.

TO BE HAD OF ALL NEWSDEALERS.

Sole Agents throughout the world,

The International News Co.,

NEW YORK AND LONDON.

THE DUTIES PROPOSED BY

The Mills Bill,

COMPARED WITH PRESENT DUTIES.

A complete Table of Comparisons will be found in the New York WEEKLY POST of August 30. The same issue contains a reproduction in facsimile of the celebrated "Fat" circular appealing for Republican campaign funds, in which the admission is made that the manufacturers get "practically the sole benefit" of the tariff laws.

A third edition has been printed to meet the continued demand. Price 3 cents per copy, or $2.50 per hundred, postpaid. Address

THE WEEKLY POST, NEW YORK.

FINE SET, MAGAZINE OF AMERICAN history, richly bound, for sale by A. S. CLARK, Bookseller, 34 Park Row, New York city.

FRENCH, GERMAN, SPANISH, ITALIAN.

You can, by ten weeks' study, master either of these languages sufficiently for every-day and business conversation, by Dr. RICH. S. ROSENTHAL'S celebrated MEISTERSCHAFT SYSTEM. Terms $5.00 for books of each language, with privilege of answers to all questions, and correction of exercises. Sample copy, Part I, 25 cents. Liberal terms to teachers.

MEISTERSCHAFT PUBLISHING CO., BOSTON, MASS.

F. W. CHRISTERN,

254 Fifth Avenue, between 28th and 29th Sts., New York.

Importer of Foreign Books, Agent for the leading Paris Publishers, Tauchnitz's British Authors, Teubner's Greek and Latin Classics. Catalogues of stock mailed on demand. A large assortment always on hand, and new books received from Paris and Leipzig as soon as issued.

BANKER WANTED.—FULLERTON, Southern California. We have a bank building, pressed brick, plate glass, vault, etc.: just completed, cost, $10,000, that we desire to let at a nominal figure to a capitalist who will establish a bank with at least $30,000 capital. We guarantee a steady demand for $200,000 at from 10 to 15 per cent., with gilt-edged collateral security. Fullerton is a new town on the Santa Fe short line to San Diego, commenced running East August. It is in the finest agricultural part of Los Angeles County, 23 miles southeast from Los Angeles and 15 from the ocean. Perfectly healthy and delightful climate summer and winter. No frost and no excessive heat. A $40,000 hotel just opened. Photographs sent on application. Reference. First National Bank, Los Angeles. FULLERTON LAND & TRUST CO., Fullerton, Cal.

FOREIGN BOOKS.—Russian, Polish, Hungarian, Swedish, Danish, Hebrew, French, German, etc. H. ROSENTHAL & CO., 14 Cooper Union, N.Y.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

MACMILLAN & Co.'s NEW BOOKS.

HISTORICAL WORKS.

In Paper Covers, 50 cents each; Cloth, flexible, 60 cents; Cloth, edges uncut, 75 cents.

TWELVE ENGLISH STATESMEN.

A series of short biographies designed to present in historical order the lives and work of those leading actors in English affairs who in their direct influence have left an abiding mark on the policy, the institutions, and the position of Great Britain among States.

In the list of subjects, the great movements of national history are made to follow one another in a connected course, and the series is intended to form a continuous narrative of English freedom, order and power.

"*Macmillan's admirable series—'Twelve English Statesmen.'*"—San Francisco Chronicle.

The Following Volumes are Ready.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

By Edward A. Freeman, M.A.

"Mr. Freeman has cleared away the tangle of prejudice and evil report that have so long attached to the Conqueror's name, and would restore to him the title of Great, which he bore in his own time. This brilliant and instructive biography ushers in the series most auspiciously."—*Boston Saturday Evening Gazette.*

"It is needless to say that the author's lucid and compact style makes the book exceedingly interesting, and that his knowledge of the subject makes it equally convincing. The series to which it belongs could not have been more happily inaugurated." — *Chicago News.*

"A little book of which the learning and solidity are beyond dispute. . . . This book has a definiteness of its own because Mr. Freeman has honestly endeavored to set William in his place as the chief among the makers of England. He has given an admirable account of William's training, William's character, and William's work—an account which could not be amended within its own limits."—*Saturday Review.*

"In a brief compass the thorough master of the period of the Norman conquest presents a perfectly trustworthy picture of that great event, and a thoroughly intelligible conception of the character of the man who was its chief actor."—*Christian Union.*

"We can advise our readers to lay hold of whatever bears on its title-page the name of Edward A. Freeman, but we can specially commend all that pertains to the earlier periods of the Anglo-Norman era."—*Churchman.*

HENRY II.

By Mrs. J. R. Green.

"A most admirable addition to this brilliant series, the complete success of which is already assured."—*Boston Post.*

"That remarkable work, 'Henry the Second,' by Mrs. J. R. Green."—*N. Y. Evening Post.*

"That the history of Henry II. is the history of our ancestors need not be argued in these columns. But it is this fact which gives to Mrs. Green's volume its title to special attention. The spirit in which the volume is written is excellent."—*Boston Beacon.*

"This excellent series cannot fail to do good service to the cause of public education, if the volumes yet to be issued shall be worthy to rank with those now published. People who have no time or opportunity for the study of English history will find in these volumes almost everything which it is at all important to know."—*Standard of the Cross.*

"The story of Henry's rule in England, of his victory over the barons, of his struggle with Thomas à Becket, and of the final ruin wrought mainly by the treachery of his sons, is told in brilliant style. No one can read it without getting a clear understanding of the time, and of the influences which Henry, despot as he was, molded in a way that brought forth good fruit of constitutional liberty more than a century later."—*San Francisco Chronicle.*

WOLSEY.

By Professor M. Creighton.

"In every way one of the most satisfactory monographs imaginable. It is clearly and elegantly written, with a complete mastery and a firm grasp of the subject, and it is especially noteworthy for the sharpness of outline with which the author draws character. The concluding chapter, which gives an estimate of Wolsey and his career, as a whole, is admirably done, and would in itself make the book worth especial notice."—*Boston Courier.*

"Dr. Creighton, like Prof. Freeman, has devoted years to the study of a period, and consequently in writing of Wolsey he draws easily from a great range of knowledge. He describes Wolsey as a man who was not understood by his contemporaries nor, in fact, for three hundred years. Yet to him was owing the station of England among the first rank of nations, and by him were laid the foundations on which the structure of the English Reformation was reared."—*New Haven Register.*

OLIVER CROMWELL.

By Frederic Harrison.

"Frederic Harrison's brilliant biography. . . . We venture to say that a reader can retain more that is vitally important from this biography than from reading any of the larger ones."—*Christian Advocate.*

"Let the reader not take this praise for momentary enthusiasm. Let him first read Frederic Harrison's present little book on Oliver Cromwell, and, ten to one, he will share the enthusiasm."—*New York Times.*

"A brilliantly written, appreciative, and thoroughly studied summary of the greatest statesman who ever ruled Great Britain."—*Independent.*

"A most powerful and stirring portrait of one of the most singular men that the English race has produced. The volume, as a whole, is one of the best which Mr. Harrison has written."—*Boston Post.*

"A brilliant bit of biography. . . . This volume by Mr. Harrison is an expression of the later and more enlightened opinion that has since gone out towards Cromwell."—*Boston Saturday Evening Gazette.*

"Henceforth any writer who seeks to overthrow Cromwell's position as one of the greatest of the world's constructive statesmen will have to begin by attempting the hard task of refuting this book, in which Mr. Harrison masses clear statements in an argument of great strength."—*Critic.*

WILLIAM III.

By H. D. Traill.

"One of the most satisfying accounts yet published of this remarkable man. . . . Mr. Traill has separated the wheat from the chaff, and has told his story in a spirit of fine independence, impartiality, and sincerity. The style is invariably strong, simple, and lucid, and the criticisms are keen throughout and just. The book is almost an education itself in the existing politics of the era with which it deals, and exceptionally interesting reading matter from beginning to end. . . . The volume is a valuable addition to the literature of biography, and is delightful and edifying reading throughout. If the other contributions to the series are as thorough and as unconventional as those which have already appeared, the set, when completed, will achieve a permanent and standard reputation."—*Boston Saturday Evening Gazette.*

"He has given in the brief space allotted him an excellent picture of the eventful career of William of Orange. It is perhaps the most impartial estimate that has ever been made of the man who has stirred such bitter controversies between rival religions and political faiths. . . . He was at times an unscrupulous politician, but he never violated the rights of the people, and it is to his great services as a constitutional sovereign that all English-speaking people owe him a debt of gratitude."—*San Francisco Chronicle.*

IN PREPARATION:

EDWARD I. By F. York Powell.
HENRY VII. By James Gairdner.
ELIZABETH. By the Dean of St. Paul's.
WALPOLE. By John Morley.
CHATHAM. By John Morley.
PITT. By John Morley.
PEEL. By J. R. Thursfield.

NEW EDUCATIONAL WORKS.

A new edition of Dr. Foster's Physiology.

A TEXT-BOOK OF PHYSIOLOGY. By Michael Foster, M.A., M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., Professor of Physiology in the University of Cambridge. With Illustrations. Fifth and thoroughly revised edition. In three Parts. 8vo. Part 1, comprising Book 1.—Blood; The Tissues of Movement: The Vascular Mechanism. $2.60.

ÆSCHYLUS. The "Seven against Thebes." Edited, with Introduction and Notes. School Edition. By A. W. Verrall, Litt.D., and M. A. Bayfield, M.A. 16mo. (Macmillan's Classical Series.) 90 cents.

MACMILLAN'S GREEK COURSE. Edited by the Rev. W. G. Rutherford, M.A., LL.D., Head Master of Westminster.

1. *FIRST GREEK GRAMMAR.* By the Rev. W. G. Rutherford, M.A., LL.D. New Edition, thoroughly revised. 16mo, 50 cents.
2. *EASY EXERCISES IN GREEK ACCIDENCE.* By H. G. Underhill, Assistant Master of St. Paul's Preparatory School. 16mo, 50 cents.

MACMILLAN'S GREEK READER. Stories and Legends. A First Greek Reader, with Notes, Vocabulary, and Exercises by F. H. Colson, M.A. 16mo, 75 cents.

MACMILLAN'S LATIN READER. A Latin Reader for the Lower Forms in Schools. By H. J. Hardy, M.A., Assistant Master in Winchester College. 16mo, 60 cents.

SOLUTIONS OF THE EXAMPLES IN an Elementary Treatise on Conic Sections. By Charles Smith, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. 12mo, $2.60.

OUTLINES OF HEBREW SYNTAX. By Dr. August Müller, Professor of Oriental Languages in the University of Königsberg. Translated and edited by James Robertson, M.A., D.D., Professor of Oriental Languages in the University of Glasgow. 8vo, $1.60.

EXAMPLES IN PHYSICS. By D. E. Jones, B.S.C., Lecturer on Physics in University College of Wales. 16mo, 90 cents.

A SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE HISTORY OF MATHEMATICS. By W. W. Rouse Ball, Fellow and Assistant Tutor of Trinity College, Cambridge. 12mo, $2.60.

CLARENDON PRESS SERIES.

NEW VOLUMES.

AN INTRODUCTION TO LATIN SYNTAX. By W. S. Gibson, M.A., late Exhibitioner of Balliol College, Oxford. 16mo, 50 cents.

A LATIN PROSE PRIMER. By J. Y. Sargent, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Hertford College, Oxford. 16mo, 60 cents.

*** This is intended to be used as a companion to 'Easy Passages for Translation into Latin,' by the same author.

Commencement of a new volume. Price, 15 cents; annual subscription, $1.75.

THE ENGLISH ILLUSTRATED MAGAZINE.

NO. 61. OCTOBER.

CONTENTS:

GERARD DOW'S PORTRAIT OF HIMSELF. Engraved by O. Lacour.
OLIVE. Algernon Charles Swinburne.
SANT' ILARIO. Chaps. 1-3. F. Marion Crawford.
JOHN HOPPNER AND HIS TIME. Walter Armstrong. With Illustrations.
A DEAD CITY (St. David's). James Baker. Illustrated by Walter Crane.
THE HOUSE OF THE WOLF. Chaps. 1-2. Stanley J. Weyman.
THE MORTE D'ARTHUR. F. Ryland. With Illustrations.
ET CÆTERA. H. D. Traill.
ORNAMENTAL FRIEZES, HEADINGS, INITIAL LETTERS, AND TAILPIECES.

MACMILLAN & Co., 112 Fourth Avenue, New York.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED